

JUNE 1957  
VOLUME 38, NUMBER I

**THE** *Southwestern*  
**SOCIAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY**

---

More for Whom

O. J. CURRY

Mexico's Nationalized Oil Industry: 1938-55

MERRILL RIPPY

Some Comments on Agricultural Maladjustment

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A Sociological Comment on the Camera Fan

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

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# More for Whom

O. J. CURRY

NORTH TEXAS STATE COLLEGE

MANY DISTINGUISHED SOCIAL SCIENCE SCHOLARS have prepared presidential addresses for the Southwestern Social Science Association. These addresses have been of great value because the subject has often been timely and extensive research and study have been invested. At this 1957 general session of the Thirty-fourth Annual Convention, it is the purpose of the Association president to set the stage for the convention address to be made by the Director of the Texas Commission on Higher Education.

Young people who are in high school and college today will spend their retirement years in the twenty-first century. Their lives and careers will span what in all probability will be the most important and significant half-century of man's history. What kind of individual can have a happy and rewarding life for himself and can contribute to social progress during the remaining forty-two and a half years of this century? To answer this question requires a look at what the years ahead will bring.

As we look ahead toward the year 2000, we must anticipate continued population growth. The present world population of two and a half billion will rise to around three and a half billion by the end of the century, and in the United States we can anticipate a population of three hundred million or more. Along with the great increase in numbers of people, we must anticipate continued improvement in living standards throughout the world. This means that each member of society must be more productive—and to be more productive he must have more machines, work in bigger factories and stores, live in urban communities, and be educated to cope with the technical and social problems of this kind of environment. Raising the standards of living may be increasingly difficult because of the depletion of irreplaceable natural resources and the increases in population, but living standards must continue to improve, for human happiness is based on having things a little better each year—both materially and spiritually—than they were the year before.

One of the essentials for successful living in the world of tomorrow will be the ingredients necessary for an individual to engage in teamwork. It has

NOTE.—Presidential address delivered at the annual convention of the Southwestern Social Science Association, Dallas, Texas, April 19, 1957.

been said that man's greatest discovery is not fire, or the wheel, or the internal combustion engine, or atomic energy. In a very real sense, man's greatest discovery and accomplishment is Teamwork by Agreement. The advance in civilization can almost be told in terms of the widening appreciation of the fact that working together to produce more brings more of the good things of life than fighting with one another over the division of what is already available. When we look at the vast array of products that we are enjoying today and enumerate those that did not even exist twenty years ago, it prompts us to say that if there is one thing certain for the rest of this century, it is that such teamwork, on an ever increasing scale, is going to be required of all productive workers and professional people.

To live successfully during the latter half of this century and into the twenty-first will require a technical and social knowledge beyond the scope of anything anticipated when those of us here were college students. President Eisenhower recognized the importance of the need for education in an address to the National Education Association when he spoke of the importance of education to a free people who hope to progress toward a peaceful world. Our schools, he said, are more important than our Nike weapons, more necessary than our radar warning nets, and more powerful than even the energy from the atom. For, as the President also pointed out, all these things are themselves the result of the trained and educated mind.

During all of the twentieth century to date, we in the United States have been dedicated to the policy of educating all the people, and we have liked to believe that our system provided an opportunity for almost any citizen to get as much education as he might find profitable in any field that he might choose. Now, when the need for educating all of the people appears to be greater than ever before, we are questioning whether this is any longer possible because of the great increase in numbers and the consequent cost. Already, where special equipment and technically educated teachers are required, even in the secondary schools, only a fraction of the student body can be admitted to courses that we say are essential to the progress of our society. In higher education we are overcrowded and understaffed in many subject-matter areas; we look forward to the avalanche of students yet to come with something approaching dismay. We are trying all kinds of devices and schemes to determine whether we can teach effectively greater numbers at a lower cost. At the same time, state legislatures across the nation grapple with cost problems, with some states determining the quality and quantity of educational services wanted and then financing the program, while other states seem to determine only how much or how little money can be spent for education and then suffer along with the inadequacy. In the meantime, the central government in Washington is taking an increasing

interest in the problems of education; there is some indication that public education may become in part a function of the central government.

Most of the members of the Southwestern Social Science Association are educators and, therefore, know full well the vital importance of adequate education for those who will lead and for those who will follow in shaping the destiny of the world as we move toward the twenty-first century. It is for this reason that the Association has asked the Director of the Texas Commission on Higher Education to make the convention address.\*

\* It is hoped that a paper based on the speech of the Director of the Texas Commission on Higher Education will appear in an early issue of the *QUARTERLY*.—EDITOR.

# The Nationalized Oil Industry of Mexico: 1938-55

MERRILL RIPPY

LAMAR STATE COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY

THE OIL INDUSTRY OF MEXICO, nationalized almost completely in 1938, has been functioning for nearly twenty years as a socialized enterprise. As the first large-scale socialized industry involving modern technology and international trade to begin operations in Latin America, the Mexican oil undertaking has unusual significance. With the passage of nearly two decades the daring of the expropriation in 1938 has become less an experiment in nationalization than the demonstration of a technique. Considering the predictions made so widely in 1938 and afterward as to the success or failure of nationalized productive enterprise, an examination of the accomplishments of *Petróleos Mexicanos*—the national oil corporation, known as

TABLE 1

Production of Crude Oil in Mexico

<i>Year</i>	<i>Barrels</i>
1937	48,472,690
1940	45,506,695
1945	43,877,427
1950	73,881,478
1955	91,748,628 (est.)

Pemex—is enlightening. For this examination, the question-and-answer<sup>1</sup> technique has been used, with most information shown in tables.

How was the production of crude oil affected by expropriation and nationalization?

Table 1 shows that the output of crude oil in 1955 had increased by 205

<sup>1</sup> Data used in this paper are primarily from two studies, "Realizaciones de *Petróleos Mexicanos* de 1951 a 1955" and "*Petróleos Mexicanos*," questionnaires prepared by me. Answers to the questionnaires were prepared for me by the Department of Control and Statistics of Pemex, through the co-operation of Don Antonio Bermúdez, director of Pemex, and Lic. Raúl Medina Mora, executive secretary to the director. Estimates throughout are based on first-quarter reports.

per cent over the 1940 level of production, 1940 being taken as the first "normal" year after expropriation.

After the 1938 expropriation, it was not until 1946 that production again reached the 1937 level. Output has risen steadily, however, since 1942. The amount of crude pumped daily by Mexico is indicative of the pattern of production, and in 1955 that amount reached 217 per cent of the 1940 level.

The efforts of Pemex to increase crude production are indicated by the larger number of wells drilled after 1938. As Table 2<sup>2</sup> shows, the number of exploratory wells particularly increased after 1938. The total number of

TABLE 2

Oil Wells Drilled, 1938-55

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Producers</i>	<i>Exploratory</i>
1938	31	15	...
1940	33	23	...
1945	49	31	...
1950	127	86	17
1955	448 (est.)	268 (est.)	132 (est.)

wells drilled in 1955 was 1,457 per cent of the number put down in 1940. Wells drilled for exploratory purposes in 1955 represent an absolute increase over the number drilled in 1940.

The number of wells being exploited in Mexico also rose significantly—from 924 in 1941 to 1,331 in 1952, an increase of 43 per cent. Interest in exploratory work is indicated by the fact that there were two exploratory parties in 1939 and an estimated forty-seven in 1954. As a consequence of vigorous efforts in exploration, Mexico has enlarged her oil reserves considerably during the period of nationalization, increasing them from 835,000,000 barrels in 1938 to an estimated 2,609,000,000 barrels in 1955, or 312 per cent of known reserves in 1938.

The problem facing Mexico with regard to her crude production—her dependence on one area—is shown in Table 3. The proportion of production coming from Veracruz, the major oil-producing state, during the past ten years has been between 96 and 97 per cent of Mexico's total production.

<sup>2</sup> For data for years earlier than 1938 and for verification of later data I have also used statistical material from the *Memoria* of the Secretaría de la Economía Nacional; *Compendio Estadístico* of the Dirección General de Estadística; *Informe del Director General de Petróleos Mexicanos*; annual reports of Nacional Financiera, S. A.; *La Cuenta Pública* of the Secretaría de Hacienda, for the appropriate years.

Even though thirty-eight new pools came into production between 1950 and 1955, Veracruz continued to dominate all Mexican crude output, twenty-nine of the new pools being in that state.

Table 4 gives a comparison of the production of Mexico and Venezuela, the other major oil-producing country of Latin America, and reveals some

TABLE 3

Crude Production in Mexico by States: 1945, 1950, 1955  
(Cubic Meters Annually)

<i>State</i>	<i>1945</i>	<i>1950</i>	<i>1955</i>
Veracruz	4,865,583	8,306,663	13,544,000
San Luis Potosí	147,786	224,277	32,512
Tamaulipas	.....	99,825	273,636
Tobasco	.....	.....	111,668

useful facts about the petroleum industry in both. This comparison of Mexican and Venezuelan oil production is particularly valuable for the light it sheds on the operations of a nationalized oil industry in contrast to those of a privately operated business. In 1955, Venezuelan production increased 147 per cent over that of 1945, while Mexican production rose 111 per cent during the same period. In 1945, Mexican production was 14 per cent of

TABLE 4

Annual Oil Production: Mexico and Venezuela  
(Barrels)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Mexico</i>	<i>Venezuela</i>
1941	41,200,000	222,902,000
1942	32,995,000	156,000,000
1943	35,163,000	177,631,000
1944	38,203,000	257,046,000
1945	43,547,000	323,156,000
1946	49,235,000	388,486,000
1947	56,284,000	434,905,000
1948	58,508,000	490,015,000
1949	60,910,000	482,316,000
1955	91,748,628 (est.)	800,500,000 (est.)

Venezuelan; by 1955, Mexico was turning out 11 per cent of Venezuela's production. The relative worsening of Mexico's position in production in comparison with Venezuela's cannot, of course, be considered alone. In the

light of Mexico's increased domestic consumption of oil, the increased income derived by the state from production, the expanded social services offered Pemex workers, and the postexpropriation difficulties of Mexico in securing machinery for exploration, her production rates, even though somewhat smaller than Venezuela's, are impressive.

How did expropriation and nationalization affect refining?

The refining industry in Mexico, in facilities both for crude distillation and for cracking, expanded after 1938, as Table 5 shows. Between 1938

TABLE 5

Mexican Oil Refineries and Capacities  
(Barrels)

	<i>Daily Crude Capacity</i>		<i>Daily Cracking Capacity</i>	
	1938	1955	1938	1952
Arbol Grande	11,500	40,000	.....	.....
Atzacapotzalco	11,000	64,000	.....	14,000
Ciudad Madero	43,000	89,000	5,400	6,500
Mata Redonda	8,000	14,000	7,000	6,000
Minatitlan	36,000	24,000	2,500	.....
Poza Rica	.....	5,000	.....	.....
Reynosa	.....	7,000	.....	.....
Salamanca	.....	40,000	.....	5,000
Total	109,500	283,000	14,900	31,500

and 1955, Mexico's crude-oil distilleries increased their daily capacity about 106 per cent. The daily volume of oil treated in cracking units rose 112 per cent in the period 1938-52. The increase was accomplished by the building of three new crude distilleries and two new cracking units. The quantity of crude processed in refineries in Mexico was 36,344,000 barrels in 1937; it rose to 82,743,000 barrels in 1955. The amount of crude oil treated in Mexican refineries rose 177 per cent between 1940 and 1955.

What effect did expropriation and nationalization have on the marketing of Mexican petroleum?

The distribution system of Pemex naturally expanded also to take care of increased production. The volume of petroleum products marketed by Pemex is shown in Table 6. Pemex was delivering to the domestic market in 1955 a volume of production of petroleum goods 315 per cent of that of 1940. Concomitant to the large expansion in distribution was the corresponding enlargement of facilities for delivering oil products. The number of tank cars owned by Pemex rose from 1,862 in 1951 to 1,992 by 1955, and the use of long-distance type tank trucks increased rapidly, from 141



such trucks in 1950 to 305 by 1951. The Pemex tanker fleet grew from 2 ships in 1939 to 19 in 1955. The four major pipelines in use in 1942 were

TABLE 6

Volume of Products Distributed by Pemex

<i>Year</i>	<i>Barrels</i>
1938	17,112,000
1940	19,300,000
1945	29,350,000
1950	47,277,000
1955	60,000,000 (est.)

from Poza Rica to Atzacapotzalco, Poza Rica to Tuxpam, Poza Rica to Tampico, and from Poza Rica to Alamo; these four pipelines had a daily pumping capacity of 125,000 barrels. By 1950 two new pipelines had been put down from Poza Rica to Salamanca and from Minatitlan to Salina Cruz. By 1955 the capacity of pipelines was 961,800 barrels daily, and the pipelines totaled 2,025 miles in length. In 1938, storage facilities for petroleum products were adequate for 1,404,242 barrels; by 1955, storage was available for 3,826,082 barrels.

After expropriation the Mexican oil industry was forced to reorient itself toward the domestic market. Consequently a great change occurred in its

TABLE 7

Mexican Oil Markets  
(000's Barrels)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Crude Output</i>	<i>Domestic Consumption</i>		<i>Exports</i>	
		<i>Volume</i>	<i>Percentage Output</i>	<i>Volume</i>	<i>Percentage Output</i>
1937	46,907	23,842	51	23,065	49
1938	39,792	30,581	77	9,211	23
1940	44,807	31,547	70	13,269	30
1945	43,877	35,937	82	7,940	18
1950	73,881	50,529	68	23,352	32
1955	91,749	51,157	56	40,592	44

pattern of trade, with domestic consumption rising and exports declining until after 1945. Table 7 shows the switch in the marketing picture after 1938. In 1937 domestic consumption of oil in Mexico took 51 per cent of production, 82 per cent in 1945, and dropped to 56 per cent in 1955,



although the volume of domestic consumption rose 110 per cent between 1937-55. As production expanded, larger internal consumption was ac-

TABLE 8

Export Sales of Oil and Oil Products

<i>Year</i>	<i>Barrels</i>	<i>Value</i>
1938	9,210,510	\$ 9,586,392
1940	13,260,000	12,576,729
1945	7,940,000	8,754,900
1950	23,351,553	41,649,672
1955	40,592,192 (est.)	66,218,828 (est.)

TABLE 9

Pemex Income (Total Sales), 1940-55

1940	\$ 54,684,729
1945	96,716,500
1950	187,880,619
1955	\$240,528,467

companied by greater exports, though exports as a percentage of production dropped until after 1945. In 1937 some 49 per cent of Mexican production was exported. Export production dropped to 18 per cent in 1945 but has risen since to 44 per cent of output in 1955. The domestic consumption-exportation pattern after 1938 developed in sharp contrast to the scheme of trade that grew up in Venezuela, where it resembles that of Mexico's oil trade between 1918-35.

The volume and value of export oil sales by Mexico is shown in Table 8.<sup>3</sup> The value of oil sales abroad between 1940-55 rose 425 per cent, while by volume exports increased 215 per cent. The rise in value was a result not only of price increases typical during the period but also of Mexico's increase in exports of more valuable petroleum by-products.

<sup>3</sup> All values throughout have been translated into dollars from pesos at the current exchange rates for the years being considered. The use of dollars simplifies understanding but at some cost to accuracy, since internal prices in Mexico, as well as most other countries, are not set in relation to the dollar. The peso devaluations of 1935, 1938, 1949, and 1954 (reducing the peso from \$0.466 to \$0.08) were not made in relation to an unchanging dollar, furthermore. Since monetary constants are elusive (if not illusory) even for econometricians, the most that can be expected from monetary comparisons made over a period of years is a picture of the direction of change and something of its velocity.

The income of Pemex from all sales of petroleum products between 1940-55 is shown in Table 9. Figures in Table 9 show that Pemex income from all sales in 1955 was above that of 1940 by 338 per cent. In 1955 Pemex' return from internal sales rose 76 per cent over the 1951 total, while the dollar value of external sales in 1955 was 58 per cent above that for 1951, which indicates that the rise in income from the oil industry in Mexico is continuing.

From the chief financial arm of the Mexican government involved with capital investments—Nacional Financiera—and from the national treasury itself, Pemex also received income in the form of loans and industrial credit. Table 10 shows approximately the amount it received in that form between 1939-50.

TABLE 10

Pemex Income from Loans, Industrial Credit, and Sales, 1939-50

<i>Year</i>	<i>Loans</i>	<i>Industrial Credit</i>	
1939	\$ .....	\$ 4,276,899	
1940	.....	.....	
1941	.....	.....	
1942	875,974	.....	
1943	.....	1,672,000	
1944	.....	10,670,000	
1945	13,838,000	13,918,535	
1946	8,536,000	837,774	
1947	6,402,000	1,013,960	
1948	6,384,000	1,620,000	
1949	3,612,000	3,120,000	
1950	4,778,760	7,992,000	
	<u>\$43,550,760</u>	<u>\$45,121,168</u>	
Total (loans and industrial credit)			\$ 88,671,928
Sales (1939-50)			<u>\$1,337,355,339</u>
Grand total			<u>\$1,426,027,267</u>

Pemex' income in the period 1939-50 totaled \$1,426,027,267, of which 94 per cent was from sales and 6 per cent from loans and credits from the Mexican government, directly or indirectly. Of Pemex' total income, 27 per cent was paid to the national treasury between 1939-50—11 per cent in taxes and 16 per cent in the form of assessments (originally for the payment of the debt contracted with expropriation). In recent years Pemex has invested in capital improvements about 18 per cent of its annual gross income.

How was the income of the Mexican government affected by expropriation?

The income of the Mexican government from the oil industry over the thirty-three-year period 1922-54 is shown in Table 11.

The sum received by the Mexican government from the oil industry,

TABLE 11

Income of Mexican Government from the Oil Industry

<i>Year</i>	<i>All Taxes</i>	<i>Taxes and Assessments</i>
1922	\$31,509,687*	\$ .....
1923	31,496,719	.....
1924	27,501,487	.....
1925	19,051,306	.....
1926	14,142,092	.....
1927	9,792,018†	.....
1928	6,899,305	.....
1929	7,066,850	.....
1930	9,098,229	.....
1931	9,547,891	.....
1932	7,323,657	.....
1933	6,402,847	.....
1934	10,281,039	.....
1935	5,915,168	.....
1936	7,174,855	12,325,880
1937	8,725,197	14,600,400
1938	4,355,554‡	12,028,500
1939	5,619,378	14,154,100
1940	5,022,994	21,254,736
1941	7,849,954	22,099,873
1942	8,344,878	18,952,522
1943	10,462,926	26,973,019
1944	11,183,602	20,581,776
1945	14,903,767	27,321,446
1946	18,780,156	29,529,897
1947	22,807,838	46,943,168
1948	26,614,636	68,081,065
1949	17,279,520	40,247,721
1950	18,645,313	51,589,800
1951	39,405,983	56,772,991
1952	40,301,307	59,188,924
1953	43,563,199	60,066,891
1954	34,955,071	49,293,702

\* Taxes on crude exports, production, and oil lands.

† New gasoline tax included.

‡ First year of expropriation, same taxes.

counting all taxes and assessments between 1939-54 (the postexpropriation period), amounted to \$651,996,410. Total income of the Mexican government derived from the oil industry rose 132 per cent from 1940 to 1954. Prior to 1936, when all receipts from the oil industry were in the

TABLE 12

Pemex Payments to the Mexican National Treasury, 1939-54

Taxes	\$324,740,222
Assessments	326,256,188
Total	\$651,996,410

form of taxes on private property, the Mexican government had not received in any year so much as had been paid by the oil companies in 1922, the peak year of "boom production" of crude oil in Mexico. In 1937 (the last full year of private control of the oil industry in Mexico), the government's income from the oil industry was only 46 per cent of the amount

TABLE 13

Doctors Employed and Medical Expenditures by Pemex, 1939-55

<i>Year</i>	<i>Doctors Employed</i>	<i>Expenditures (Not Including Medical Fees)</i>
1938	61	\$ .....
1939	62	381,959
1940	..	.....
1941	72	1,760,000
1942	..	.....
1943	109	.....
1944	..	.....
1945	..	.....
1946	146	1,705,000
1947	..	.....
1948	..	.....
1949	..	1,265,000
1950	..	.....
1951	273	3,159,200
1954	..	1,669,979

taken by taxes in 1922, before the gasoline tax was levied. In 1954, however, receipts from petroleum production and sales were 156 per cent of boom year 1922, and 338 per cent of 1937. Although the amount taken from the oil industry in taxes alone did not again reach the 1922 level until

1951, the Mexican government in 1946 received in taxes and assessments only slightly less than the \$31,509,687 paid in 1922 by private industry in taxes on, primarily, exported crude.

In Table 12 the sums paid to the government by Pemex are shown as totals for the period 1939-54. It is clear that the income derived by the Mexican government from the petroleum industry after nationalization has been large. Allowing a maximum figure of \$108,000,000 for payment of the expropriation debt by 1954, the Mexican government still realized a return from its oil industry of about 604 per cent of the expropriation debt.

How were expenditures for workers' benefits affected by expropriation?

The expenditures of Pemex for services rendered to its employees for their welfare showed a large increase within the period 1939-55. As Table 13 shows, Pemex increased the amount spent on medical services and multiplied the number of doctors it supplied to its employees. Complete medical service is offered by Pemex to its workers and their families, including medicines and dental care as well as hospitalization, surgery, and special treatments.

Because of the isolation of many of the oil fields in Mexico, Pemex has maintained a school system for the children of oil-field workers. Table 14 indicates Pemex' accomplishments in supplying such schools. The number

TABLE 14

## Pemex School System

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Teachers</i>	<i>Annual Expenditures</i>
1938	26	3,187	...	\$ 32,120
1939	37	....	137	123,142
1941	38	7,200	115	132,000
1942	43	....	167	.....
1943	42	10,634	...	220,000
1946	..	....	...	399,740
1948	42	13,960	...	445,200
1949	42	17,202	...	336,000
1951	40	19,534	383	271,620
1952	40	19,978	433	340,231
1953	40	19,762	446	358,934
1954	40	20,916	477	509,265

of schools maintained by Pemex in 1954 was 108 per cent of the number in 1939, and the number of teachers employed was 348 per cent of the 1939 figure. The total number of students enrolled in Pemex-supported schools in 1938 had increased by 553 per cent by 1954. In 1954 Pemex paid out in

annual cost for the schools it supported nearly sixteen times the 1938 sum. In addition, it financed 482 scholarships for workers and workers' children for advanced study in scientific and technical fields. Pemex also spent large sums for school construction; for example, it spent \$435,173 for school construction in 1952 and \$872,056 during 1951-54.

Since the precipitating factor in the nationalization of the oil industry in

TABLE 15

Average Annual Wage for Selected Groups, 1942-52

<i>Year</i>	<i>Day Laborers</i>	<i>Refinery Workers</i>	<i>Refinery Workers (Operators)</i>	<i>Drillers</i>	<i>Engineers</i>	<i>Administrators (Medium Category)</i>
1942	\$ 668.14	\$1,029.12	\$1,204.50	\$2,115.96	\$3,748.36	\$5,677.98
1944	900.24	1,229.58	1,437.26	2,352.02	3,992.12	5,847.38
1946	932.19	1,411.74	1,512.94	2,424.40	4,007.08	5,910.08
1948	1,191.33	1,425.06	1,704.78	2,577.12	4,072.11	5,893.65
1950	1,063.44	1,341.60	1,483.92	2,770.80	3,208.80	3,919.68
1952	1,112.52	1,391.40	1,680.00	2,856.00	3,263.76	3,976.56

1938 was a wage dispute, it is particularly pertinent to note the wage scales of Pemex. In 1938 the average annual wage was about \$1,760, including fringe benefits (savings fund and housing allotment). In 1952 that average was about \$2,382, an increase of 35 per cent in dollars. The average annual wage between 1942-52, with fringe benefits, of selected wage groups is given in Table 15.

The percentage changes for workers affected by the wage scales shown in Table 15 are presented in Table 16.

TABLE 16

Pemex Wage Increases for Selected Workers, 1952 as Percentage of 1942

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Day laborers	167
Refinery workers	135
Refinery workers (operators)	139
Drillers	135
Engineers	87
Administrators (medium category)	70

These figures are informative, though they need to be studied in some detail. A new labor contract is automatic each two years between Pemex and

its workers; hence for contracts made in 1954 and 1956, data are not available. Moreover, the fact that percentages are calculated in terms of dollars is misleading, since the cost of living for Mexican workers is not affected to the same degree as the price for imported goods is influenced by devalua-

TABLE 17

Major Changes in Mexican Oil Industry Since Expropriation  
(1955 as Percentage of 1940 Unless Otherwise Indicated)

<i>Category</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Crude production	205
Barrels of crude produced (daily)	217
Oil wells drilled	1,457
Oil reserves	312
Daily capacity of refineries	
Crude	206 (1938-55)
Cracking	212 (1938-52)
Daily volume of crude refined	277
Volume of production delivered to market	518
Total consumption by Mexico	212
Exports (volume)	315
Exports (value)	525
Income of Pemex	438
Income of government from oil industry	232 (1940-54)
Income of government from oil taxes	700 (1940-54)
Total Pemex expenditures for medical services	437 (1939-54)
Schools supported by Pemex	108 (1939-54)
Teachers in Pemex schools	348 (1939-54)
Students enrolled in Pemex schools	700 (1938-54)
Total sum spent for education	1,590 (1938-54)
Wage changes (including fringe benefits)	
Day laborers	167
Refinery workers	135
Refinery workers (operators)	139
Drillers	135
Engineers	87
Administrators (medium category)	70

tion of the peso in international exchange. To illustrate, the price of a gallon of regular gasoline in Mexico in March, 1955, was \$0.166; in the United States it averaged \$0.294. Mexican workers are not heavy consumers of imported goods. Even on a dollar basis, the lower echelons of workers have enjoyed real increases in their incomes, and the decreases (insofar as they really exist) have come in the upper brackets of the work force, particularly in the administrative end, a fact worthy of note in a bureaucratized industry.

The major changes which have taken place in the Mexican oil industry

after expropriation are summarized in Table 17. Percentages are 1955 as a per cent of 1940, except where indicated.

The data indicate that the expropriation of the privately owned oil industry of Mexico in 1938 has been profitable for the government, rewarding to labor, and beneficial to the Mexican economy. Whether these consequences of expropriation in 1938 and afterward were a result of nationalization or merely coincidental with twenty years of history would be, at this date, purely an academic question.



# Some Comments on Agricultural Maladjustment

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THE GENERAL PROBLEM of agricultural maladjustment can be made to assume many diverse forms and can be made to fit into the schema of many diverse intellectual approaches and interests. Some reflective thinkers who have been concerned with the problem of agricultural maladjustment have included in their theoretical frameworks considerations of the sentiments and psychic satisfactions that allegedly flow from agricultural pursuits. Analysis indicates that these sentiments and satisfactions derive largely from a complex of mystical or, at best, quasi-mystical beliefs and practices that have, from time to time in the history of mankind, been identified variously as nature worship, physiocracy, agrarianism, and the like. While sentiments and satisfactions must certainly enter into most problems involving human interaction, they must also be subsumed in the whole network of factors giving rise to any particular problematic situation.

Other approaches toward solving the maladjustment of agriculture have placed primary emphasis upon the "parity" status of agriculture, where "parity" is measured in terms of pecuniary income accruing to the whole segment of agriculture. Such an emphasis leads to policies and programs intended to preserve the "parity" status of farmers as a group.

The problem of agriculture is not one for just *agriculture*; it is, instead, a problem for *society*, working through its given set of institutional patterns and procedures. In a real sense, it is just as much a problem for industry as for the agricultural segment of the economy, inasmuch as it springs from a maladjustment between the larger functional segments of the society, including agriculture and industry.

This paper views the agricultural problem—in a broad, societal frame of reference—as one of maladjustment between the more important segments of the society. The problem is to achieve an adjustment between production and consumption, between agricultural processes and industrial processes, so as to increase the material well-being of the community, "community" being viewed as a functioning whole.

Some of the concrete referents of the phrase "the material well-being of

the community" are to be found in the physical production of goods and in the distribution of those goods so that the members of the community may function in that productive process. The material well-being of the community is to be considered not only in terms of the effect that production and distribution have upon the individuals engaged in those processes but also upon the functional segments that mesh in the general productive process. When individuals and functional segments mesh along the lines laid down by the logic of the productive process rather than upon the lines of action dictated by custom-bound, institutional habits, then the material well-being of the community has a much better chance of being promoted.

Thus, the basic problem in agriculture is to integrate the functional elements of society so that its material well-being may be more fully enhanced. The problem of integration is, or seems to be, centered on agriculture, for in certain important respects agriculture has, in the course of societal development, either fallen behind or been very slow in the development of institutional patterns that can utilize the productive equipment and skills that have been evolved so as to contribute most fully to the material well-being of the community.

This is a rather narrow frame of reference, but it appears to be broad enough to contain the concepts presented in this paper. A broader frame would insist that society—not only the agricultural sector—has been unable to absorb the rapid technological progress insofar as formulating more compatible institutional arrangements is concerned. This, of course, is true, and it is the major cause of economic and social problems. The agricultural problem is only one of many problems that derive from the fact that technology is inherently progressive, whereas institutional patterns have "built-in" rigidities. Since this paper is, however, concerned specifically with agricultural maladjustment, the narrower frame of reference is quite satisfactory.

The principle of elasticity-of-demand might well be discussed at this point. I am aware that the demand for agricultural products is relatively inelastic. This fact has been used to support various programs designed to curtail farm production. And perhaps these programs are desirable as "stop-gap" measures. In the long view, however, economic progress means greater and greater production of all economic goods with less human effort. Are we to inhibit the contribution agriculture can make to this progress simply because the demand for farm-produced goods is relatively inelastic? Everyone knows that farm output has not declined and is not likely to do so under any politically feasible crop-restriction program. Farmers are constantly being taught how to produce twice as much on half the number of acres, which is all to the good for the material well-being of the community.

Agricultural production has increased about 75 per cent since 1910, and

this has been accomplished in spite of the fact that total farm acreage has increased by only about 25 per cent. Obviously, the elasticity-of-demand factor has not been of any importance in the past in relation to an ever-increasing farm production; it seems safe to assume that it will be of no importance in the future. Emphasis, then, must be placed on developing patterns of farming that will best utilize available resources.

Economists, as a group, have nearly always deplored industrial behavior designed to curtail production in order to maintain a stable price level or increase the price level. On the other hand, many of these same economists support an identical program for agriculture. If one keeps in mind the economic well-being of the community, he must conclude that this logic is inconsistent, to say the least. If curtailment of production is desirable in one sector, it would appear to be desirable in all sectors. If it is sound economic policy to inhibit production as a means to an end (to create a stable—perhaps a high—price level) in one economic area, logic dictates that it is sound in all areas. But if one believes that economic progress means greater and greater production, if he holds that production is an end and not a means, he must, logically, oppose all programs and behavior that curtail output.

Finally, the percentage of national income spent for agricultural products has been declining steadily for many years. This is a percentage decrease in *demand* and has nothing to do with elasticity-of-demand. The implications of this decrease in demand for farm goods seem to be far more important than the fact that the demand for agricultural products is relatively inelastic.

Within the economy as it is now constituted, two concrete referents can be used to advantage to illustrate the broader problem of maladjustment and the lack of adequate integration between the agricultural and industrial processes and the institutional consumption patterns. One of these concepts is physical productivity; the other is cash income accruing to production units.<sup>1</sup> Inasmuch as, in our economy, cash income is the resultant of various technological and institutional forces—that is, since pecuniary income accrues as a matter of (coercive) right to owners of goods or services—then there will be some degree of correlation between the productivity of a farm and its income accounted for in pecuniary units. By using these two concepts on a comparative basis, we might then determine which particular pattern or patterns of farming are utilizing the available resources to

<sup>1</sup> It should be noted that concern with cash income in this connection does not imply a concern over the pecuniary status of farmers, either individually or collectively. In this paper, cash income is conceived to be important only insofar as it is the predominant means by which individuals gain the use of goods and services that contribute to the material well-being of the community.

best advantage, "best advantage" meaning comparatively higher physical productivity and (through a system of private property and tribute) comparatively higher cash income. Comparatively lower physical productivity and cash income would then be indicative of an underuse of resources devoted to agricultural activity.

It is not necessary—perhaps it is not even possible—to compare agricultural and industrial efficiency. The important factor is that there are many farms on which physical productivity and, consequently, income are very low. In terms of physical output and the utilization of resources, these farms are inefficient. On these farms, the human resources, in particular, are not employed to the fullest technological extent.

According to one reliable source, once farming shifted from a subsistence way of life to commercial production, farmers, "if they were to be successful in producing a cash crop, had to develop greater skill in the management of their land, labor, and capital. Many of them never did so and to this day there are millions of inefficient farmers futilely seeking to eke out an existence on submarginal land with substandard methods."<sup>2</sup> And Paul A. Samuelson points out under the heading "Poverty in Agriculture":

An enduring American vision is that of the "family farm." This is run by father, mother, and children, with possibly a little outside help; it is a reasonably efficient unit and it produces at least a minimum income level, comparable to that of city living after taking account of the extra pleasures and duties that go with self-reliant country living.

Let us turn from vision to fact. Professor Theodore Schultz . . . has pointed out that this definition automatically excludes numerous sharecroppers; and from the 5½ million remaining farms of 1940, Schultz eliminates country residences, large nonfamily farms, and about 1 million subsistence farmers who did not earn a cash income of even \$600 in 1940. This leaves about 3 million farms that *might* be classed as family farms. But in Schultz's judgment about half of these, which had prewar farm incomes of less than \$1,200 or \$1,500, could not be regarded as representing a reasonably efficient use of resources. So in the end, he finds that only a fraction of all American farms are at all like the American dream.

The sad fact is that about half of all our farm products are produced on the 5 to 10 per cent most efficient acreage. This means that 90 per cent of all farm land is low-producing. A hidden surplus of population exists in the form of low-productivity marginal farm residents.<sup>3</sup>

In addition to this, and as pointed out already, agriculture is declining in relative importance. ". . . as we get richer, we do not want to expand our

<sup>2</sup> Charles H. Hession, S. M. Miller, Curwen Stoddart, *The Dynamics of the American Economy* (New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1956), p. 352.

<sup>3</sup> Paul A. Samuelson, *Economics* (2d ed., New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951), p. 82.

food consumption by as much as we wish to expand our consumption of city products. This has been shown by almost every statistical investigation in this country and abroad."<sup>4</sup> And, "In the United States agriculture has been a declining industry for many decades. The percentage of our national income originating in agriculture declined during the nineteenth century and the first half of the present century."<sup>5</sup> During the past forty-five or fifty years some major changes have taken place concerning the number and size of farms and the number of people living on them. Today we have 5.4 million farms, a decline of about 1 million since 1920. Today the average-size farm is approximately 215 acres, whereas in 1910 it was 138 acres. In 1910 about 31 million people lived on farms. Today farm population is 23 million. One shudders to think of the plight of American agriculture today if these developments had not occurred. But the hard core of truth is that these changes have not been big enough. In short, there is still an excess of farmers, and these unneeded farmers do not contribute as much to the total productive processes of the economy as they might if they were transferred out of the inefficient position they occupy in agriculture.

But note that this proposition raises all sorts of subsidiary problems, the solution to which must be found before the end in view—smoother integration of the economy's functional elements—can be achieved. For instance, there is the necessary adjustment that must be made in order to increase the physical productivity of small-farm units. Two aspects of this adjustment are a rearrangement of institutional (credit) patterns so that more advanced machinery can be obtained, and provisions for increasing the size of these small farms so that the new machinery can be operated efficiently. In addition, there is the problem of channeling the already-excessive number of farm workers away from agricultural pursuits and into other productive segments of the economy. This problem becomes increasingly important, at least in magnitude, as the physical productivity of the farm unit increases and as fewer farm workers are needed to produce the amount necessary for the consumption markets of the economy.

In considering these problems, one should not lose sight of the core problem, namely, that of integrating the functional elements of the economy in such a manner as to enhance the material well-being of the community. The problems of "capital rationing," land tenure, soil conservation, expanding the size of farm units, adequate credit institutions, and the like are subordinate aspects of the big problem, and are merely conditions that must be met to achieve success in the broader sphere of interest.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 81.

<sup>5</sup> W. Nelson Peach, *Principles of Economics* (Homewood, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1955), p. 625.

In formulating policies or suggesting courses of action to cope with the maladjustment of agriculture, the fact must be kept constantly in mind that the economy is and will continue to be a dynamic one. Consequently, there will probably always be an "excess" of workers in agriculture or an underemployment of human resources in certain segments of agriculture. But the dynamism of the economy is ultimately the saving grace of the present situation of maladjustment since the resources that are now underemployed in the agricultural sphere need to find places in the "secondary" and "tertiary" industries of the economy. Hence, before there can be anything approaching a satisfactory solution of the basic problem, there must be continuous expansion of the industrial and commercial segments of the economy to absorb excess agricultural workers.

The greatest help to agriculture will come from a *stabilization of the non-agriculture sector of the economy at a high-employment high-real-income level*. That being the case, the demand for agricultural products will be optimally high.

Nonetheless, as the 1920's showed, it will probably still be desirable and necessary for people to move out of low-income farm areas into higher-income urban jobs. This they will want to do because of existing income differentials. But unless the problem of urban mass unemployment is under control, they will not be able to move because no jobs will be available. So once again, we come back to the same basic solution: avoidance of mass unemployment outside of agriculture coupled with aids toward increased mobility out of low-income areas.<sup>6</sup>

Some may argue that even if all this were accomplished, there still would be overproduction of agricultural products for the market. That may be true. Again it may not be. The answer depends upon what we do about patterns of income distribution, not only on the domestic level, but also on the international level. Speculating on this, however, does not come within the scope of this paper.

If inefficient farmers are to become more efficient and increase the productivity of their farms, two basic conditions must be met: they must have access to more machinery and scientific know-how; and they must be able to expand the size of their farms to utilize efficiently the new technological devices. Both conditions, in an economy based on principles of business enterprise, are dependent upon credit institutions. Hence, in those areas of low farm-income and low rates of productivity, there should be a government-sponsored program of credit extension for the express purpose of bringing about a more efficient use of resources through the mechanization of farming areas now employing little or no modern farm machinery. The program should not be aborted by considerations of the sentiments and psychic satis-

<sup>6</sup> Samuelson, *op. cit.*, pp. 88, 89. Italics in original.



factions gained by some persons from agricultural pursuits. Neither should credit be extended under this program for the purpose of shoring up the pecuniary status power-position of farmers or in any way guaranteeing to them a certain minimum income level. The latter consideration is an important matter, but it should not be allowed to interfere with the objective of attaining a more efficient use of resources.

In order that the consumption segment of the economy not become mal-adjusted, some steps must be taken to ensure to farmers an income that will allow them to make their contributions to the productive processes of the economy. Some farm experts hold that agricultural resources would be allocated more efficiently if farm commodities entered the market "free," that is, unhampered by government price-supports. If so, the prices that farmers received for their products would in all probability be insufficient to ensure them an income adequate for their material well-being. Consequently, if such a program was followed, the government would have to set up a system of income payments to farmers. As Schultz notes, this suggestion is opposed by those who believe that every person should "earn" his own income; but in terms of the efficient utilization of resources and the material well-being of the community, there can be little doubt of the warrantability of such a course of action.

The foregoing discussion attempts only to present the essence of the problematic situation usually referred to as "the agricultural problem." It presents the core problem and some of the more important related aspects, and it has the temerity to suggest a few broad policy decisions that might possibly move the economy in the direction of greater functional integration. The discussion necessarily ignores many subordinate technical aspects of the problem, such as political inertia, vested interests, the technics of farming, agrarian sentiment, and the like. These factors would certainly have to be taken into account in the process of orienting agriculture more fully within the technological-institutional framework of the economy.

Experience indicates that most problematic situations combining the necessity of social action with the adherence to group sentiment are characterized by overemphasis of emotions and sentiments, where "overemphasis" is measured by the detrimental effect that such emotions and sentiments have upon the successful solution to the problem, and where "successful solution" is calculated in terms of the material well-being of the community. The United States community is so addicted to the notion of the virtues of increased production that there would perhaps be little opposition to the objective of greater productivity. But the minds of agriculturists and their spokesmen cling stubbornly to outmoded value-concepts, and the agrarian mind of today still carries the imprint of the reaction to the shift in national-

power status and the still larger impression left by the impact of Jeffersonian ideals and philosophy. Hence, to the above-suggested course of action—particularly in regard to increasing the size of farms, channeling some farmers to the industrial-urban nexus, and setting up a system of income payments to the remaining farmers while allowing the price of agricultural commodities to be established in the market—there has been and would be much opposition expressed.

Strategy seems to indicate a continued emphasis on the benefits that would flow from increasing the productivity of individual farms, thereby making more efficient use of the resources of the community devoted to agriculture. For although the community does indeed cling stubbornly to sentiment and myth, it has also, as a matter of developmental process, recognized the material benefits that flow from the productive processes. Since by increasing the efficiency of the productive resources and by meshing all the functional segments of the economy into an integrated whole, the community has enjoyed a rising standard of living (measured in terms of material goods and services), then it is to be hoped that community opinion will turn in that direction rather than to sentiments that lead to a malfunctioning of the economy.



# Attitudes Toward, and Incidence of, Mental Disorder: A Research Note

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THE NUMBER OF PATIENTS committed to public or state mental hospitals has frequently formed the basis for computing incidence rates of mental disease of areas in typical ecological studies, and has often served as the primary object of analysis in sociological, epidemiological, and etiological inquiries into mental disorder.<sup>1</sup> This procedure has been viewed with skepticism by many investigators. Some hold that such patients overrepresent the lower socio-economic levels, apparently unconvinced that the lower-income groups have a greater prevalence of mental disease. Their reasoning is that more per-

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<sup>1</sup> Among various studies using the number of patients committed to public mental hospitals are: L. M. Adler, J. W. Coddington, and D. D. Stewart, *Mental Illness in Washington County, Arkansas: Incidence, Recovery, and Posthospital Adjustment* (Fayetteville, Ark., University of Arkansas, 1952); Paul Barrabee and Otto von Mering, "Ethnic Variations in Mental Stress in Families with Psychotic Children," *Social Problems*, Vol. 1 (October, 1953), pp. 48-53 (reprinted in A. M. Rose (ed.), *Mental Health and Mental Disorder* [New York, W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1955], Chap. 9); Ivan Belknap and E. G. Jaco, "The Epidemiology of Mental Disorders in a Political-Type City, 1946-1952," *Interrelations Between the Social Environment and Psychiatric Disorders* (New York, Milbank Memorial Fund, 1953), pp. 235-43; R. E. Clark, "Psychoses, Income, and Occupational Prestige," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 54 (March, 1949), pp. 433-40; H. W. Dunham and B. N. Meltzer, "Predicting Length of Hospitalization of Mental Patients," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 52 (September, 1946), pp. 123-31; R. E. L. Faris and H. W. Dunham, *Mental Disorders in Urban Areas* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1939); D. L. Gerard and Joseph Siegel, "The Family Background of Schizophrenia," *Psychiatric Quarterly*, Vol. 24 (January, 1950), pp. 47-73; H. W. Green, *Patients Admitted to the Cleveland State Hospital, 1928-1937* (Cleveland, Cleveland Health Council, 1939); E. G. Jaco, "The Social Isolation Hypothesis and Schizophrenia," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 19 (October, 1954), pp. 567-77; M. L. Kohn and J. A. Clausen, "Social Isolation and Schizophrenia," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 20 (June, 1955), pp. 265-73; E. M. Lemert, "An Exploratory Study of Mental Disorders in a Rural Problem Area," *Rural Sociology*, Vol. 13 (March, 1948), pp. 48-64; Benjamin Malzberg, *Social and Biological Aspects of Mental Disease* (Utica, N.Y., State Hospitals Press, 1940); E. R. Mowrer, *Disorganization—Personal and Social* (Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1942), Chap. 15.

sons of the lower socio-economic strata are committed to public hospitals simply because they cannot financially afford treatment by psychiatrists in private practice.<sup>2</sup> Owen, in a criticism of the Faris and Dunham study of Chicago, suggests that "differential visibility and selectivity" of mental illness itself are factors involved in the commitment of mental patients.<sup>3</sup> Her basic point is that actual incidence of certain behavior disorders "may be quite different from the *recognized* incidence of such behaviors."<sup>4</sup> In a similar vein, Lemert has suggested that the "degree of stressful deviation" and "differential tolerance for deviant behavior" are the basic factors affecting collective action in hospitalizing a mental deviant.<sup>5</sup> If the inhabitants of one community are more tolerant of deviant behavior than another, then the former will show a lower rate of mental disorder than the latter, if the rates comprise only those patients committed to public mental hospitals. Incidence rates for ecological areas, consequently, may be more a manifestation of these visibility and tolerance differentials than of the actual frequency of mental illness therein, and thus not represent the mentally ill population within these areas.<sup>6</sup>

Both "recognizing" and "tolerating" deviant mental behavior may possibly involve an attitudinal dimension. Hence, one approach to understanding the problem that aberrant behavior recognized as due to mental derangement is tolerated differentially between the inhabitants of various ecological areas may lie in ascertaining the attitudes and opinions these inhabitants hold toward mental illness and the care and treatment of mental patients. Any tendency for lay persons to act in terms of taking a deviant person to a psychiatrist, jail, court, or hospital may also involve some sort of attitude-set.

If attitudes toward the nature of mental illness and its care and treatment are connected to the incidence of commitment of patients to a mental hospital, then residents of areas with high rates of commitment should manifest correspondingly different attitudes toward this practice from those of residents of low-rate communities. If this hypothesis is supported, then characteristics as well as the number of patients committed to public mental

<sup>2</sup> For a discussion of this position, see R. E. L. Faris, *Social Disorganization* (2d. ed., New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955), pp. 334-35; and H. W. Dunham, "Current Status of Ecological Research in Mental Disorder," *Social Forces*, Vol. 25 (March, 1947), pp. 322 f.

<sup>3</sup> M. B. Owen, "Alternative Hypotheses for the Evaluation of Some of Faris and Dunham's Results," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 47 (July, 1941), pp. 48-51.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 51 (italics added).

<sup>5</sup> E. M. Lemert, *Social Pathology* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1951), p. 406. See also R. A. Schermerhorn, "Needed Research in Social Psychiatry," *Social Problems*, Vol. 1 (June, 1953), p. 19.

<sup>6</sup> Although related, this is not the same problem as the difference between rates of incidence and rates of prevalence of mental disorder.

hospitals from areas exhibiting such biased attitudes may be unrepresentative of the mentally ill population of that area, distorting the incidence rates for such areas. This paper reports the results of a test of this major hypothesis. Expressed in the form of null propositions, three hypotheses were set up: Between the inhabitants of areas having high and low rates of commitment, there is no difference in their attitudes toward:

1. The nature of mental illness.
2. Informing others of mental illness in their family.
3. The care and treatment of mental patients.

The process necessary for commitment to a state mental hospital in the area to be studied must also be considered in an inquiry of this kind.<sup>7</sup> This study was conducted in Texas, where the three principal ways of commitment at the time of this inquiry were: voluntary, temporary (by ninety-day court commitment), and indefinite (by mandatory jury trial). (A recent election has now rendered the jury trial to be optional for indefinite commitment.) Voluntary commitment, whereby the mentally ill individual himself usually initiates commitment action, is exceedingly rare in Texas; the latter two types of involuntary commitment are typical of nearly all the state hospital population. This emphasizes the important fact that mental patients usually are committed through the actions of other persons in the home or community. Someone else signs the complaint for a court commitment, whether or not the prospective patient waives jury trial. Others serve on the jury panel, if he now so prefers, to decide whether he is "insane" and should be confined to a mental institution for a prolonged period. Consequently, the attitudes of others in the potential patient's community are more likely to affect his commitment than those of the patient. The attitudes of others—the responsible adult inhabitants in the community—may feasibly affect not only *who* is committed but also *how many* over a period of time in an area.

### *Procedure*

Between 1940 and 1952, 688 persons from Austin, Texas, were committed to the local state mental hospital. Three hundred and eighty-five patients were committed from the six census tracts having the highest commitment rates—78.7 per 10,000 population for this period; 115 patients were committed from the five tracts exhibiting the lowest rates for this period—23.8 per 10,000. The population base for the high-rate areas (48,918) was nearly identical with that of the low-rate areas (48,677), though three and a third times as many patients were committed from the

<sup>7</sup> See Schermerhorn, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

high-rate communities.<sup>8</sup> The incidence rates showed an inverse relation to the socio-economic levels of the areas.

Ten questions and statements relating to attitudes toward mental illness and its care and treatment, selected from a similar survey made in Louisville, Kentucky,<sup>9</sup> were asked of a systematic sample of inhabitants of the high- and low-rate communities. This procedure assumes that if attitudes are re-

TABLE 1  
Responses to "Most Mental Illness Is Inherited"

Response	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
Total .....	337	100.0	193	100.0	144	100.0
Agree .....	69	20.5	55	28.5	14	9.7
Disagree .....	268	79.5	138	71.5	130	90.3

$$\chi^2=17.78; (d.f.=1) P<.001$$

lated to commitment, then occupants of areas having different commitment rates should exhibit concomitant differences in their attitudes. Chi-square statistical tests were conducted to determine whether the differences in the frequencies of the various response-categories between the inhabitants of the high- and low-rate communities were probably due to chance alone, or to differences in the groups themselves.

In this study no attempt was made to explore the possible dimensions or latent continua of these attitudes. Rather, this is a preliminary effort to determine whether any gross differences in attitudes toward mental illness exists between occupants of high- and low-rate areas. Avenues for more precise inquiry may be indicated from the findings.

### Results

Of the three statements dealing with attitudes toward mental illness, only one produced a significant difference in the responses of residents of

<sup>8</sup> The cutting point for the number of tracts having the highest and lowest commitment rates is admittedly somewhat arbitrary. An optimum was sought by combining enough areas to obtain a stable population-base for sampling purposes while at the same time retaining sufficient disparity in the rates of such areas. The standardized rate for the high-rate areas was nearly five times that of the low-rate tracts.

<sup>9</sup> Elmo Roper, *People's Attitudes Concerning Mental Health* (1950, unpublished). This poll is reported by J. L. Woodward, "Changing Ideas on Mental Illness and Its Treatment," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 16 (August, 1951), pp. 443-54 (reprinted in Rose, *op. cit.*, Chap. 32).

high- and low-rate areas. Table 1 shows that significantly more inhabitants of the high-rate communities agreed with the statement that most mental disease is inherited (28.5 per cent to 9.7 per cent). No difference in response was found to the statements that "the trouble with most people who are mentally ill is that they just don't want to face their problems and troubles," and that "the 'experts' themselves often can't agree on whether a man is mentally ill enough to be put in an insane asylum or not" (Table 2). Thus, the findings do not seem sufficiently strong to overthrow the first null hypothesis.

TABLE 2

## Responses to Two Statements on Mental Illness

"The trouble with most people who are mentally ill is that they just don't want to face their problems and troubles"	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	331	100.0	189	100.0	142	100.0
Agree* .....	184	55.6	104	55.0	80	56.3
Disagree .....	147	44.4	85	45.0	62	43.7

"The 'experts' themselves often can't agree on whether a man is mentally ill enough to be put in an insane asylum or not"	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	292	100.0	165	100.0	127	100.0
Agree† .....	200	68.5	114	69.1	86	67.7
Disagree .....	92	31.5	51	30.9	41	32.3

\*  $\chi^2=0.06$ ; (d.f.=1) (insignificant)

†  $\chi^2=0.07$ ; (d.f.=1) (insignificant)

The second hypothesis was designed to test the possibility that people living in high-rate commitment areas might be more willing to tell others about having a mentally ill member of their family than those of low-rate areas. However, no significant difference was found between the responses of residents of the differential-rate areas in response to the question: "Suppose a member of your family became mentally ill. Do you think you would tell your friends and acquaintances about it just as if he had heart trouble or asthma, or would you try to keep it as quiet as possible?" About as many inhabitants of the high- as of the low-rate areas said they would tell their friends or keep it quiet. Also no difference was found in responses to the statement "It's always worth while to get a psychiatrist's help when someone

begins to act queerly or get strange ideas" (Table 3). Consequently, the second null hypothesis about attitudes toward informing others of mental illness cannot be rejected.

Although no difference was found in responses to the statement that "most hospitals for the mentally ill treat their patients badly," significantly

TABLE 3

Responses to Two Questions on Telling Others about a Mentally Ill Member of the Family and on Seeking Psychiatric Aid

"Would you tell friends or keep quiet about a mentally ill member of your family?"	Total		Commitment Areas			
			High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	348	100.0	199	100.0	149	100.0
Tell friends* .....	216	62.1	119	59.8	97	65.1
Keep quiet .....	132	37.9	80	40.2	52	34.9

"It's always worth while to get a psychiatrist's help when someone begins to act queerly or get strange ideas"	Total		Commitment Areas			
			High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	350	100.0	201	100.0	149	100.0
Agree† .....	281	80.3	158	78.6	123	82.6
Disagree .....	69	19.7	43	21.4	26	17.4

\*  $X^2=1.03$ ; (d.f.=1) (insignificant)

†  $X^2=0.82$ ; (d.f.=1) (insignificant)

more residents of the high-rate areas disagreed with the statement that "there are not enough doctors or hospitals in Austin to give proper care and treatment to all the people who are mentally ill today" (Table 4).

Three questions dealing with the third hypothesis were open-ended. Three hypothetical cases of people in mental conflict were briefly described and the respondents were asked what they thought should be done about them. They were not told that these were cases of mentally ill people. Their responses were sorted into three categories: (1) leave it to the individual involved; (2) treat his environment; and (3) seek medical or psychiatric treatment. Examples of the first category are such responses as: "Just leave her alone"; "Someone should talk to her"; "Tend to her own business"; "Talk it out"; "Pull himself together"; "Snap out of it"; "Get a new lease on life"; "Should keep busy." Environmental treatment was indicated by: "Needs more social contacts"; "Needs new interests"; "Change environment"; "Needs more companionship"; "Get married."



Respondents were asked: "We are interested in how folks feel about certain kinds of people, and I'd like to tell you about a twenty-year-old girl

TABLE 4

Responses to Two Statements on the Care and Treatment of Mental Disorder

"Most hospitals for the mentally ill treat their patients badly"	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	288	100.0	163	100.0	125	100.0
Agree* .....	106	36.8	56	34.4	50	40.0
Disagree .....	182	63.2	107	65.6	75	60.0

"There are not enough doctors or hospitals in Austin to give proper care and treatment to all the people who are mentally ill today"	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	305	100.0	171	100.0	134	100.0
Agree† .....	241	79.0	128	74.9	113	84.3
Disagree .....	64	21.0	43	25.1	21	15.7

\*  $X^2=0.98$ ; (d.f.=1) (insignificant)

†  $X^2=4.04$ ; (d.f.=1)  $P<.05$

who began to spend too much time alone and too much time daydreaming. What do you think ought to be done about it?" Table 5 shows that inhabitants of the high-rate areas regarded this problem significantly more as an

TABLE 5

Recommended Treatment of a "Daydreaming Girl"

Type of Treatment	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	356	100.0	203	100.0	153	100.0
Internal (individual) .....	45	12.6	31	15.3	14	9.2
External (environmental) ...	286	80.3	151	74.4	135	88.2
Medical and psychiatric .....	25	7.1	21	10.3	4	2.6

$X^2=12.23$ ; (d.f.=2)  $P<.01$

internal, individual matter and as a medical and psychiatric problem than did those in the low-rate communities.

To the statement "Now here's a woman who became suspicious of her neighbors and falsely accused them of saying things about her," significantly more occupants of the high-rate areas thought that the matter was up to the

TABLE 6

Recommended Treatment of a "Paranoid" Neighbor

Type of Treatment	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	355	100.0	201	100.0	154	100.0
Internal (individual) .....	222	62.5	138	68.7	84	54.5
External (environmental) ...	85	23.9	43	21.4	42	27.3
Medical and psychiatric .....	48	13.6	20	9.9	28	18.2

$$\chi^2=8.41; (d.f.=2) P<.02$$

individual to solve, and fewer held it to be a medical or psychiatric problem than those living in the low-rate areas (Table 6).

The final hypothetical case was presented as follows: "Here's a middle-aged man who lost interest in his work, worried about everything, and thought life was not worth living." No significant difference was found

TABLE 7

Recommended Treatment of the "Middle-Aged Man"

Type of Treatment	Total		Commitment Areas			
	No.	Per cent	High		Low	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total .....	352	100.0	201	100.0	151	100.0
Internal (individual) .....	90	25.6	60	29.9	30	19.9
External (environmental) ...	196	55.7	106	52.7	90	59.6
Medical and psychiatric .....	66	18.7	35	17.4	31	20.5

$$\chi^2=4.54; (d.f.=2) \text{ (insignificant)}$$

between the responses of inhabitants of the high- and low-rate areas (Table 7).

Since three of the five questions dealing with the care and treatment of mental illness differed significantly between occupants of the high- and low-rate areas, rejection of the third null hypothesis seems indicated.

In summary, only four of the ten questions or statements were found to elicit significantly different opinions between the residents of areas having



high and low rates of commitment of mental patients. Three of the four significantly different responses dealt with the care and treatment of mental patients, whereas only one concerned the nature of mental illness. More residents of the high-rate areas believed that most mental disease is inherited; that local hospital facilities for the mentally ill are adequate; and that mental illness is more of a problem for the individual himself to treat than did occupants of communities having low rates of commitment. No significant difference was found in responses to the statements that mentally ill people will not face up to their problem; that mental hospitals treat their patients badly; that the "experts" are in disagreement over who is insane; that psychiatric aid should be sought for those acting queerly; that they would tell friends or keep quiet about a mentally ill member of the family; that they would recommend the three suggested solutions for the difficulty of one hypothetical mental case.

### *Conclusions and Discussion*

These results lead to a paradoxical conclusion. In general, attitudes toward psychiatry did not differ between residents of the high- and low-rate areas. Apparently persons living in the low-rate communities were no less willing to seek psychiatric aid for their mentally ill than those residing in the high-rate areas.

However, occupants of the high-rate areas tended consistently to believe that the individual himself is at fault and to recommend that he should treat himself on his own for his mental difficulty. The mentally disturbed individual, they say, is supposed to get himself out of his mental problem alone. The paradox arises when this attitude, along with the belief that most mental disease is inherited, is found prevailing in areas having the highest rate of commitment.

If inhabitants of high-rate areas do believe that mental illness is inherited and also think that mental problems are for the individual to solve by himself, then how can these attitudes account for the fact that their areas have the highest rate of commitment? If the assumption is accepted that persons are committed for the purpose of receiving psychiatric treatment in the hope of possibly being "cured," then the findings should have been just the opposite. Therefore, the conclusion, based on this assumption, that attitudes toward the *nature* of mental illness are not directly connected to the process of commitment to a public mental hospital seems warranted by our findings.

Our findings suggest, moreover, something perhaps even more significant. Rather than a relation between attitudes toward mental illness itself and commitment, perhaps it is the attitudes toward *mental hospitals* and their care and treatment of *patients* that is more crucially related to the inci-

dence of commitment to mental institutions within a particular community.<sup>10</sup> Furthermore, the assumption that patients are committed for treatment may also be questionable for a large segment of the population from the high-rate area.

Our finding (Table 4) that more inhabitants of the high-rate areas *disagreed* with the statement that hospital facilities for the mentally ill are inadequate in their city may be a key finding of this study. These people apparently feel that mental disorder is primarily a problem for the individual concerned to cope with in terms of his own resources. We can speculate that a more prevailing attitude follows the pattern that if the disordered person does not succeed in alleviating his mental difficulty on his own, then commit him to a mental hospital and get him out of harm's way. Such an attitude assumes that commitment is a "last-resort," and views the mental institution essentially as a place to confine mentally ill people, not as one to help or cure them. Since their disease is inherited, they are hopeless cases anyway. This is the "confinement" or "custodial" concept of the function of mental hospitals, and such an attitude-set may serve to "stigmatize" those mental institutions (and their patients) as essentially a place of confinement whose function is similar to that of penitentiaries.<sup>11</sup> Whether or not this attitude is a separate dimension from that involving the nature of mental illness is a subject for additional research.

But when mental hospitals come to be regarded as treatment centers, where a psychotic has a good chance for *recovery*, then the rate of commitment can be expected to increase in such areas.<sup>12</sup> The status of both the hos-

<sup>10</sup> See Lemert, *op. cit.*, pp. 403 f., for an account of some attitudes toward mental hospitals and their care and treatment of patients.

<sup>11</sup> For some recent discussion, see Milton Greenblatt, R. H. York, and E. L. Brown, *From Custodial to Therapeutic Patient Care in Mental Hospitals* (New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1955); A. H. Stanton and M. S. Schwartz, *The Mental Hospital* (New York, Basic Books, 1954); Maxwell Jones, *The Therapeutic Community* (New York, Basic Books, 1953); Lemert, *op. cit.*, pp. 409-13; and S. K. Weinberg, *Society and Personality Disorders* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1952), Chaps. 17, 18.

<sup>12</sup> The study of incidence of psychosis in Massachusetts by Herbert Goldhamer and A. W. Marshall, *Psychosis and Civilization* (Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1953), concluded that the increase in rates was due to the expansion of mental hospital facilities rather than to any actual increase in the frequency of psychosis in the population. (See Nathan Glazer's summary of this research in Rose, *op. cit.*, Chap. 6.) If this conclusion were absolutely valid, then those areas having mental hospitals in their midst should exhibit higher incidence rates than those areas that do not. Austin, consequently, should have a high rate of commitment, since it contains within its city limits the second largest mental hospital in Texas. However, in 1949 the first admission rate for Austin was 44.7 per 100,000 total population, whereas the rate was 54.1 for the entire state during the same period (from National Institute of Mental Health, "Patients in State Mental Hospitals: 1949" *Mental Health Statistics*, Series IMH-B52, No. 1 [December, 1951], Table 2).

We would, therefore, qualify this principle by hypothesizing that if the expansion of mental hospital facilities is *also* accompanied by an improvement in their reputation as

pital and its patients may rise as its stigmatizing effect is diminished. Low-rate areas may thus increase their rate of commitment to mental hospitals and diminish the disparities in the rates between many areas.

The process of commitment itself may be a major factor affecting attitudes and rate differentials of commitment, particularly between areas of differing socio-economic levels. One study in Dallas, Texas, has indicated that patients of higher socio-economic status are more likely to use ninety-day court commitments than jury-trial commitments, the former being a quicker procedure and having less likelihood of publicity than the latter.<sup>13</sup> Texas was the last remaining state to require a jury trial to keep a patient longer than three months in its state mental hospitals. A recent constitutional amendment altered the mandatory rule of jury trial, now making it optional, whereby the individual may waive this procedure. If this change indicates a new attitude of the population of Texas toward the mental patient and mental institutions, then the commitment rate may eventually increase throughout the state, and perhaps diminish present rate-differentials between certain socio-economic strata.

If attitudes toward mental hospitals can perhaps affect the rate of commitment, it is also quite likely that they might influence the rate of release or discharge from mental institutions in terms of a willingness on the part of the populace to accept the discharged patient as either a "new" or "different" person and as one possessing a new and different status in his relationships with others in contrast to the status he acquired by virtue of his commitment. One could hypothesize in this connection that the more a mental hospital comes to be regarded as a treatment center, the higher will be the rate of release of its patients and the easier the transition from his role as hospital inmate to his role in the regular community.

Furthermore, if the stigmatizing effect of hospitalization is reduced, then the delay between the onset of mental illness and hospitalization may be reduced. This would also result in lowering the frequency with which highly deteriorated patients are committed as a "last resort," and thus improve the prognostic outlook for those committed. If this occurred on a wide scale, then the rate of release from the hospital would increase. The disparity between time of the onset of illness and commitment may in itself be an index of the amount of stigma attached to such hospitalization in a particular area.

treatment centers, then the commitment rate will concomitantly increase. It is quite likely that the two will occur together, since improvement in hospital facilities and treatment may be the result of such a change in attitude toward mental institutions.

<sup>13</sup> H. J. Friedsam, C. D. Whatley, Jr., and A. L. Rhodes, "Some Selected Aspects of Judicial Commitments of the Mentally Ill in Texas," *Texas Journal of Science*, Vol. 6 (March, 1954), pp. 26-32.

The validity of hypothetical questions to test the latter two hypotheses may be questioned, since a disparity often exists between what people say and what they actually do. The subjects, for example, who indicated on the questionnaire that they would tell their friends about a mentally ill member of the family might not do so should such a situation actually confront them. However, the fact that no difference was found between the replies of the inhabitants of the high- and low-rate communities in their *potential* behavior is of some significance. That such an attitude is not related to the rate of commitment of the areas is also of import in this exploratory attempt to determine some of the factors accounting for rate-differentials in areas. A further step would be to compare responses to this question between those who have a mentally ill family-member and those who do not.

Our study can only suggest the possible value-system that may lie back of the attitudes revealed by the inhabitants of the high-rate communities. Their attitudes seemingly reflect the values of "individualism," and the often alleged middle-class ascetic values as discussed by Davis,<sup>14</sup> whereby the patient is supposed to cure himself by his own efforts. According to these value-premises, to be treated or "cured" by another is an indication of some sort of "weakness" on the part of the patient, who apparently does not possess the qualities that are needed to heal himself.<sup>15</sup> Rejection of the mentally ill person thus can be based on our attitudes and values toward the individual in our culture. In other words, how we treat each other as well as how we treat ourselves may affect not only who becomes identified as a mental patient but also the effectiveness and eventual outcome of psychiatric treatment and his chances for posthospital reintegration into the community.

<sup>14</sup> Kingsley Davis, "Mental Hygiene and the Class Structure," *Psychiatry*, Vol. 1 (February, 1938), pp. 55-65 (reprinted in Patrick Mullahy (ed.), *A Study of Inter-Personal Relations* [New York, Hermitage Press, 1949], and Rose, *op. cit.*, Chap. 37).

<sup>15</sup> This may depress the rate of "treated prevalence" for the male sex in those areas where overt demands are made upon the adult male to maintain and exhibit his "independence" and "self-sufficiency." It might also account for certain differentials in rural and urban rates. —See D. D. Stewart, "A Note on Mental Illness in Rural Arkansas," *Social Problems*, Vol. 1 (October, 1953), pp. 58-59.

# Aircraft Manufacturing in Texas

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ONE OF THE MOST DYNAMIC ASPECTS of American manufacturing in recent years has been the expansive development of the aircraft industry. Since 1940, employment in the manufacture of aircraft and aircraft parts in the United States has grown from fewer than 64,000<sup>1</sup> persons to more than 750,000.<sup>2</sup> Nowhere except in southern California has this expansion been

TABLE 1

Employment in Aircraft Manufacturing in Ten Leading States (January, 1956)

Rank	State	Employment
1	California .....	243,000
2	Ohio .....	64,400
3	New York .....	60,000
4	Connecticut .....	58,100
5	Texas .....	47,500
6	Washington .....	40,300
7	Fort Worth .....	25,000
8	Indiana .....	31,600
9	Dallas .....	20,000
10	New Jersey .....	29,000

*Source:* Compiled from information supplied by Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor and by co-operating state agencies.

more spectacular than in Texas. Texas numbered no aircraft workers among its 146,520 industrial employees in 1939,<sup>3</sup> but in early 1956 there were more than 47,500 people employed in the production of aircraft and parts,<sup>4</sup> amounting to nearly 10 per cent of all factory workers in the state.

Such a development seems almost anomalous when it is understood that

NOTE.—The author wishes to acknowledge his gratitude to the University of Texas Research Institute for partial subsidy of the study upon which this article is based.

<sup>1</sup> *Census of Manufactures, 1939*, Bureau of the Census, 1941, Vol. I, p. 23.

<sup>2</sup> "Aircraft Employment Relatively Stable," *The Labor Market and Employment Stability*, October, 1955, p. 17.

<sup>3</sup> *Census of Manufactures, 1939*, Vol. III, p. 982.

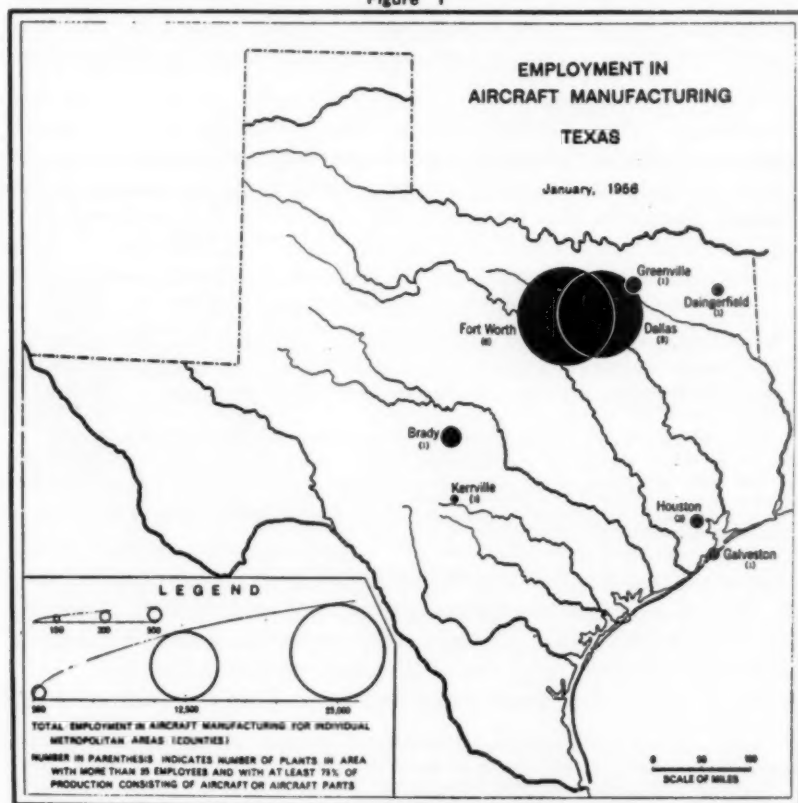
<sup>4</sup> Based on data obtained from personal interviews and mail questionnaires.

Texas does not furnish important supplies of raw materials, is not especially well oriented for marketing, possessed no large reservoir of trained factory workers, and, indeed, had a rather limited industrial background before 1940. Nevertheless, in early 1956 Texas ranked fifth among the states in the field of aircraft manufacturing<sup>5</sup> (see Table 1).

### *Distribution*

Figure 1 portrays the distribution of aircraft-manufacturing facilities over the state on a county basis. It can readily be seen that most of the industry is

Figure 1



<sup>5</sup> See William G. Cunningham, *The Aircraft Industry: A Study in Industrial Location* (Los Angeles, Lorrin L. Morrison, 1951), pp. 3-4, for a discussion of possible measures of location.



concentrated in two north Texas counties, Tarrant and Dallas. All the major producers are located in this Fort Worth-Dallas area; as a result, the majority of the smaller subcontractors are found there too (see Fig. 2).

The principal Tarrant County facilities are: (1) Convair (formerly known as Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Company), with an employment of some 20,500, which produces components for B-52 bombers and TF-102A trainers, in addition to its modification of B-36 bombers and developmental work on the B-58 supersonic bomber. (2) Bell Aircraft Corporation, which produces helicopters from its main plant at Hurst, with about 3,600 employees.

In Dallas County are: (1) Chance Vought Aircraft Company (formerly a division of United Aircraft Company), whose 12,000 employees produce Navy Crusader and Cutlass fighters and Regulus guided missiles. (2) Temco Aircraft Company, with subassembly work in two plants, and an aggregate employment of about 6,400.

Outside these two counties the only Texas aircraft producers are relatively small and scattered. All are involved in subcontract or overhaul work except one—Kerrville's Mooney Aircraft Company, with an employment of about 100, which manufactures the Mark 20 airplane for sale to the public. The principal subcontractors and modification centers are in Houston, Galveston, and Brady. In addition, Temco has a third plant (largely for modification) at Greenville, with an employment of about 500, and Convair maintains a research and development installation, with about 300 employees, at Daingerfield.

Table 2 gives an indication of the relative significance of Dallas and Fort Worth in comparison with the other major producing centers of the United States. It will be seen that Fort Worth ranked seventh in the nation, and Dallas, ninth, as of early 1956.

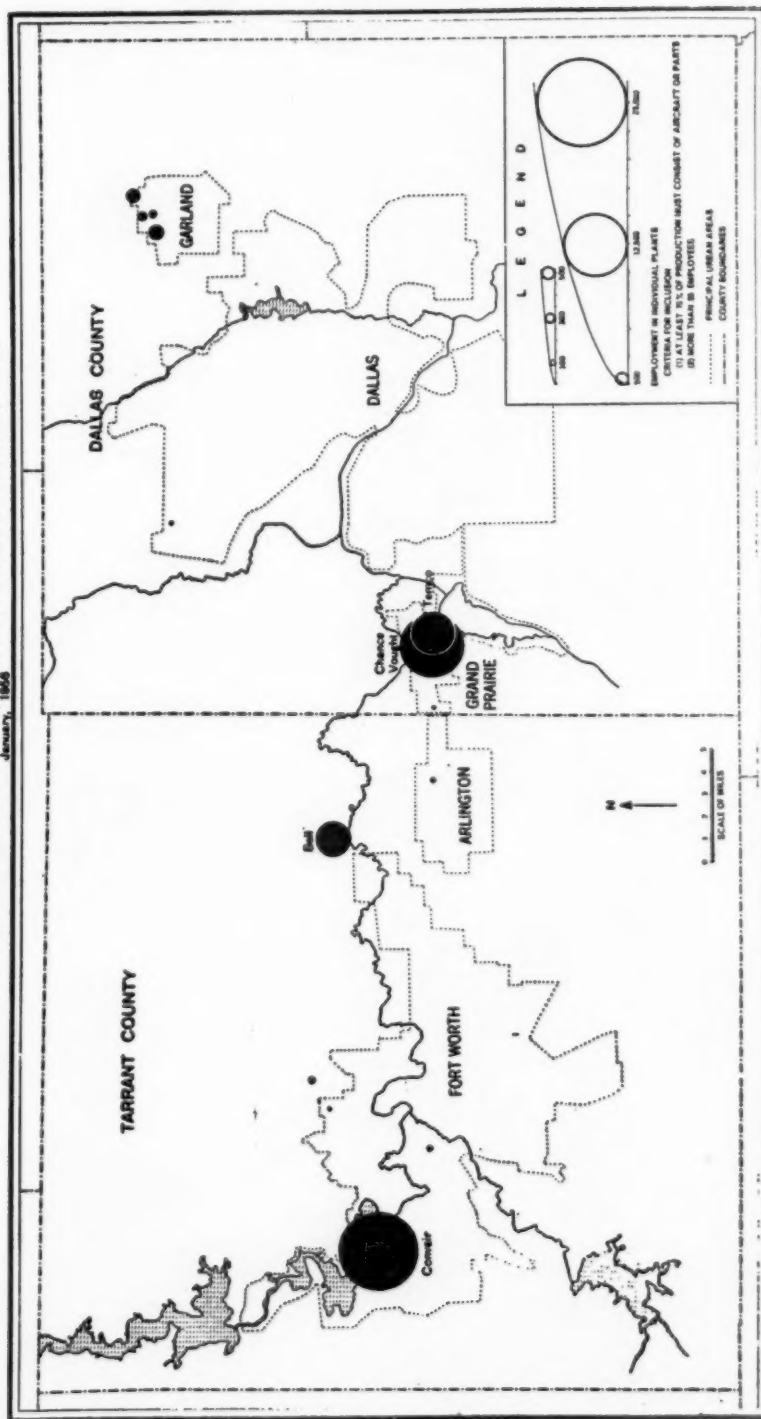
### *Locational Factors*

The reasons underlying Texas' rise as an aircraft-producing center are varied, involving strategic, economic, and physical factors. With nearly all production under contract or subcontract to the federal government, the greater vulnerability of Northeastern or Pacific coastal locations encourages decentralization into the interior. Thus strategic considerations have caused the Central Plains states to appear especially attractive.

In spite of markedly hot summers, the climate of north Texas has offsetting advantages for the aircraft industry. Optimum conditions include an abundance of clear skies and a minimum of freezing temperatures. The characteristically sunny, subhumid weather of North Texas fulfills these requirements and provides satisfactory conditions for efficient aircraft pro-



Figure 2  
EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL AIRCRAFT PLANTS, TARRANT AND DALLAS COUNTIES, TEXAS  
January, 1965



duction and maintenance work. Outdoor storage, repair, maintenance, modification, and test-flying are possible with little interruption from inclement weather.

It should be noted that Texas' aircraft industry is not oriented toward either markets or materials. With practically all production destined for the

TABLE 2

Employment in Aircraft Manufacturing in Twenty Leading Metropolitan Areas (January, 1956)

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Metropolitan Area</i>	
1	Los Angeles .....	190,000
2	New York-Northeastern New Jersey .....	62,500
3	Seattle .....	38,000
4	Wichita .....	35,000
5	San Diego .....	34,500
6	Hartford .....	30,000
7	Fort Worth .....	25,000
8	Baltimore .....	20,500
9	Dallas .....	20,000
10	Atlanta .....	19,500
11	Cleveland .....	19,000
12	South Bend .....	17,000
13	Buffalo .....	16,500
14	Columbus .....	16,000
15	Cincinnati .....	15,000
16	St. Louis .....	15,000
17	Indianapolis .....	14,600
18	Tulsa .....	14,500
19	Philadelphia .....	13,800
20	Bridgeport .....	13,000

*Source:* Compiled from data furnished by Bureau of Employment Security of United States Department of Labor, co-operating state agencies, and local chambers of commerce.

military, the market can be thought of as almost a ubiquity, and can therefore be ignored as a locational factor. And in spite of the variety of metal, plastic, fabric, and rubber products required, the cost of materials is a relatively small portion of the total cost of production. With the government paying usually on a "cost-plus" basis, much more significance is attached to strategic location, physical facilities, and climatic considerations than to the proximity of raw materials and parts.

Other factors that have played a powerful role in determining the specific sites of the aircraft plants include space requirements, proximity to airfields, and local inducements. The space, both horizontal and vertical, necessary to

accommodate a large aircraft plant is an important consideration. Multi-storied buildings are unsatisfactory, and, in addition to housing a growing factory operation, it is necessary to have additional horizontal space for a landing field, hangars, storage room, parking areas for the automobiles of the workers, and possible future expansion at a low cost. Uncongested "vertical space" is also necessary to facilitate test flights and for the reception of planes flown to the plant for modification. Texas is fortunate in having large tracts of relatively inexpensive flat land close to large population centers. In addition, there are several locations where such land is adjacent to already-constructed airfields, making an unusually attractive combination.

Encouraged by the prospects of attracting large, non-nuisance factories, several Texas communities offered specific inducements to interest them. Such incentives as free or inexpensive land, the lengthening of existing runways, donated buildings, and temporary tax-exemptions were mentioned from time to time during negotiations between city and company representatives. In addition, local chambers of commerce (particularly in Dallas and Fort Worth) worked diligently to publicize the attributes of their cities for aircraft production.

The function of labor as a factor in the location of aircraft plants in Texas is a complex one. The plants usually employ hundreds or thousands of workers, and the industry as a whole is characterized by high wage-rates and generally high over-all labor costs.<sup>6</sup> Nevertheless, the availability of trained workers is given relatively little consideration as a "locational factor." It is logical for large aircraft plants to be located near major urban centers, and undoubtedly this is one attraction of the Fort Worth-Dallas area. However, aircraft workers are characteristically mobile, and in the Texas aircraft industry this mobility is expressed in three ways:

(1) A nucleus of skilled labor moved with their employers to Dallas and Fort Worth from the Northeast when two of the major companies relocated. About 1,300 workers accompanied Chance Vought from East Stratford, Connecticut, to Dallas, and some 350 employees moved with Bell from the Buffalo, New York, area to Fort Worth.

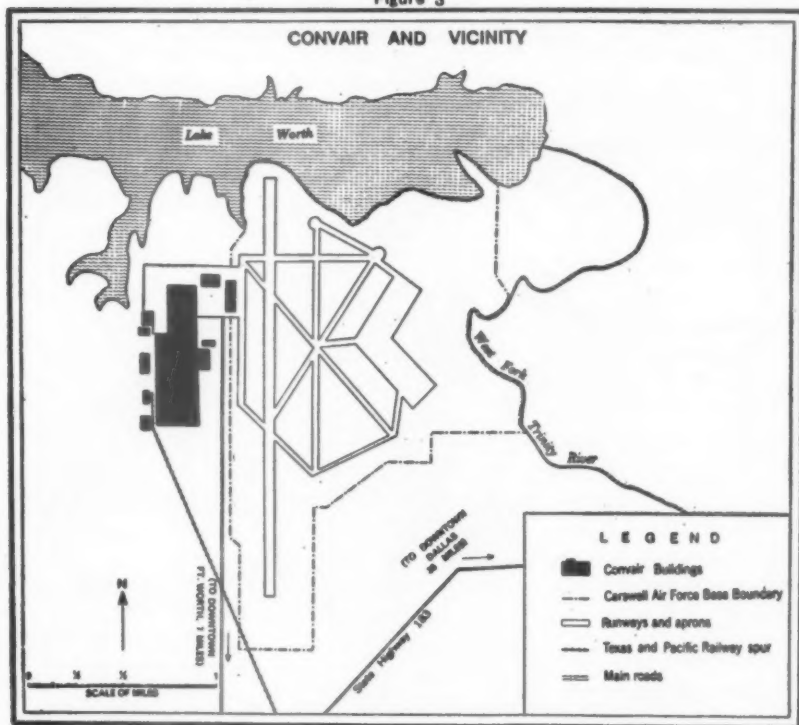
(2) The construction of aircraft plants in Tarrant and Dallas counties attracted many potential workers from surrounding counties and even neighboring states. Several hundred "outsiders" moved into the Dallas-Fort Worth area as job-seekers.

(3) The local labor pool is extremely resilient. The available labor force is capable of withstanding rapid expansion or contraction on short notice. When hiring is in vogue, job-seekers are numerous; when layoffs are called

<sup>6</sup> See Edward L. Allen, *Economics of American Manufacturing* (New York, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1952), p. 339.

for, the surplus is either absorbed by other plants or it quietly disappears. This latter eventuality is accounted for by the nature of one type of worker that is attracted to the aircraft industry. These individuals live in small

Figure 3



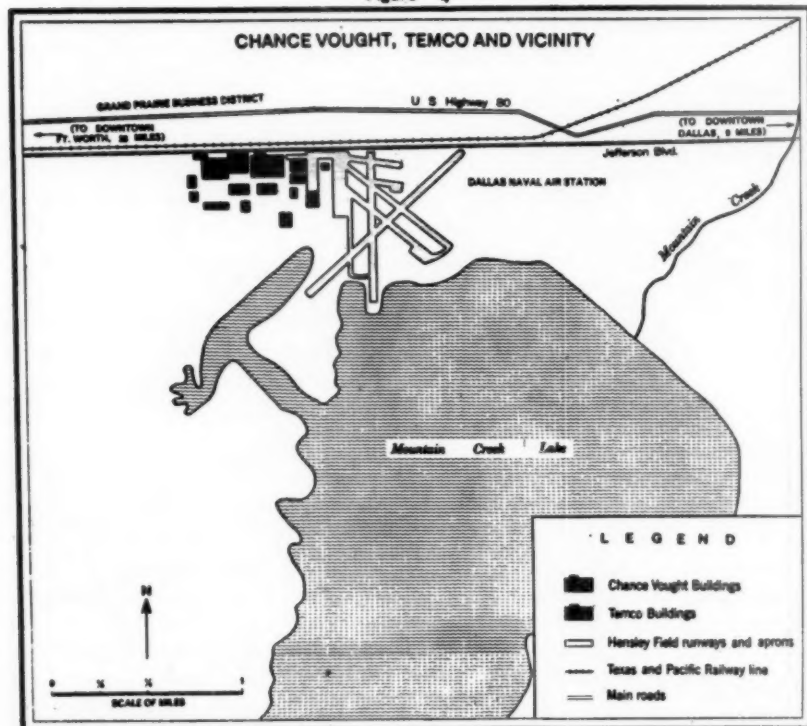
towns or on farms in one of the surrounding counties and go to work in an aircraft plant as a temporary expedient, attracted by the high wages. Realizing the instability inherent in such jobs, they maintain their original residences, commuting to and from the plants. Several instances are on record of such workers traveling as far as 180 miles (round trip) daily by automobile for many months.<sup>7</sup> When eventually displaced by employment cut-backs, they simply "retire" until more hiring is necessary.

The fact that unionization was neither traditional nor well entrenched in

<sup>7</sup> This characteristic has been noted in other analyses of the aircraft manufacturing industry. For example, see Glenn Martin, "The Development of Aircraft Manufacture," *Aviation Engineering*, December, 1931, p. 28.

most parts of Texas was another inducement to the establishment of aircraft plants in the initial period of this development. Indeed, state law forbids both "closed" and "union shop" agreements. Today, however, union

Figure 4



organization is strong, claiming approximately two-thirds of the aircraft workers of Dallas and Fort Worth as members.

#### *Focus on Fort Worth and Dallas*

In order to understand the present aircraft industry of north Texas it is necessary to analyze the volatile history behind it. The story of each of the major producers has been different. The original impetus for the development of significant aircraft manufacturing in Texas was provided in 1940, when the construction began on two giant plants, one west of Dallas, the other west of Fort Worth (see Fig. 3).

*North American Aviation Corporation.*—With the Nazis sweeping

through Europe in 1940, concern for industrial dispersion began to mount in this country. At about the same time, the Dallas Chamber of Commerce launched an active campaign to interest aircraft manufacturers in the advantages of the Dallas area. The city was fortunate in having a large military airfield adjacent to spacious industrial building sites. In 1928, Dallas had purchased the Hensley Field site and turned it over to the Air National Guard for development. At present the field is still city-owned but is leased to the Navy on a long-term basis for one dollar per year.

Attracted by the available land adjacent to Hensley Field, North American Aviation Corporation expressed interest in constructing a branch plant on the site. By then the federal government was actively subsidizing decentralization of essential industry, and agreed to purchase the land and build the plant. Apparently, the only specific inducement accepted from the City of Dallas was the donation of a small acreage that provided access to Hensley Field from the plant site.

During the Second World War North American's Dallas plant built AT-6 trainers, Mustang fighters, and B-24 bombers simultaneously. During the four years of operation, 24,000 aircraft were produced. At the peak of production (in the spring of 1944), 39,960 employees were building 700 aircraft per month.<sup>8</sup> With the end of the war the plant was closed, the employees were dismissed, and the physical facilities reverted to the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. The facility was later assigned to the Navy and designated as a Naval Reserve Industrial Plant (see Fig. 4).

*Temco.*—In November, 1945, two former North American executives organized the Texas Engineering and Manufacturing Company, hired some of the "displaced" workers, leased a portion of the old North American plant, and began producing a variety of machinery, appliances, and aircraft parts. Within a year, the company hired more than 3,000 workers. Since 1949, Temco (now its official name) has engaged exclusively in aircraft subassembly, overhaul, maintenance, and design. Its facilities were expanded by adding a plant in Garland (ten miles northeast of Dallas) in 1950 and in Greenville (fifty miles northeast of Dallas) in 1951.

*Chance Vought Aircraft Company.*—In spite of the development of Temco, most of the former North American plant was still unused. The Dallas Chamber of Commerce embarked on another extensive promotional campaign, which resulted in the Navy's recommendation to the Chance

<sup>8</sup> The plant set several records for production efficiency. For example, in constructing the Mustang fighter, North American's Dallas plant required only 0.39 man-hour per pound of airframe, which was the lowest for any fighter production in the United States during the Second World War. This efficiency record was an important selling point during negotiations for Chance Vought's move to Texas a few years later.



Vought Division of United Aircraft Company that they investigate the Dallas facility with the thought of moving there from their East Stratford plant.<sup>9</sup>

Chance Vought officials carefully examined the Dallas facility, and recommended that the move be made. The recommendation cited the strategic inland location, the large, well-planned plant with room for expansion, anticipated savings in utility bills, the adjacency of a first-class airport with radio controls and a 5,200-foot runway, good weather for year-round outdoor operations, and an ample labor supply with favorable wage rates and proven efficiency. In addition, the City of Dallas and the Navy jointly financed the lengthening of Hensley Field's longest runway for increased jet usage.

The relocation from Connecticut to Texas was made during 1948 and 1949. Reputed to be the largest actual movement of a factory in the history of the country, it involved transporting 27,000,000 pounds of equipment (carried by more than 1,000 freight cars, plus truck and air transport) and 1,300 key employees with their families and possessions a distance of 1,687 miles.<sup>10</sup>

*Convair.*—In early 1942, production began in Fort Worth's gigantic Convair plant, which had been built by the Air Force and leased to Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Company. Fort Worth's locational advantages duplicated those of Dallas, except that the Convair plant was built adjacent to Carswell Air Force Base.

More than 14,000 workers were employed the first year, and peak employment in late 1943 was 30,600. Nearly 3,000 B-24 bombers and C-87 transport planes were built during the war. At the close of hostilities, Convair, unlike North American, did not cease operations in its Texas plant, though employment dropped to a low of 6,400 in late 1945. Owing to its exceptionally spacious production area, this plant was chosen to build the B-36 Superfortress bomber in a postwar negotiation. There were few plants in existence that could accommodate a plane of this size, and Carswell Field was one of relatively few fields on which it could land.<sup>11</sup> By late 1951, employment had slightly exceeded the wartime peak, though there has been a one-third decrease since then.

*Bell Aircraft Corporation.*—The most recent addition to the major air-

<sup>9</sup> Chance Vought's Stratford location was inadequate because of its rather cramped situation, the uneconomical arrangement of the production facilities, the small size of the adjacent airfield (particularly for jet planes), and the distance (over 1.5 miles) to the nearest railroad spur. The whole idea of a move was prompted by decentralization considerations.

<sup>10</sup> "Chance Vought Achievements Parallel Proud History of U.S. Naval Aviation," *Chance Vought News*, Historical Supplement (undated), p. 4.

<sup>11</sup> Cunningham, *op. cit.*, p. 171.



craft producers of Texas is the Helicopter Division of Bell Aircraft Corporation. In order to separate helicopter production from the fixed-wing division, it was decided to move the former from Bell headquarters at Niagara Falls, New York, to Tarrant County, Texas, in 1951. This did not involve the movement of plant facilities, but it did relocate 350 key employees from the Buffalo area to Fort Worth. At first, Bell occupied temporary facilities at Fort Worth's Meacham Field, but in 1952 it moved into its new plant at Hurst, in northeastern Tarrant County.<sup>12</sup>

### *Significance*

The aircraft industry is the keystone of the current industrial structure of Dallas and Fort Worth. The 45,000 aircraft workers represent one-third of all manufactural employees and 8.5 per cent of the total nonagricultural employment of the two-county area.<sup>13</sup> Of even deeper significance is the realization that the manufacture of aircraft comprises almost one-third of the basic (i.e., supplying a nonlocal market) factory employment of Dallas,<sup>14</sup> and an even larger percentage in Fort Worth. Thus, aircraft manufacturing is the outstanding income-producing (as opposed to income-circulating, or nonbasic) industry in the area, and the current population and economic growth are in no small measure dependent upon it.

No city can prosper and grow without a sound base for attracting money from beyond the local area. The recent rapid increase in population of Dallas and Tarrant counties (more than doubled since 1940) is no exception; it is based upon productive enterprises. Previous studies have shown that manufactural expansion is the most important single underlying factor that has stimulated the recent growth of Dallas,<sup>15</sup> and undoubtedly the same could be said of Fort Worth. It is manifest that this industrial expansion is undergirded by a core of basic industry—primarily aircraft manufacturing.

The future of the aircraft-manufacturing industry in Texas is obscure, though it might be characterized as "uncertainly promising." Research specialists of the Bureau of Business Research of the University of Texas predict for Dallas alone an expansion of more than 90 per cent by 1975 and 400 per cent by the end of the century, though this is but an educated guess

<sup>12</sup> Bell is the only one of the major producers that owns its own plant (the others are government-owned), and that produces for both the military and civilian market. Its 3,600 workers build more than 700 helicopters per year.

<sup>13</sup> Based on statistics furnished by the Texas Employment Commission.

<sup>14</sup> Tom L. McKnight, "Manufacturing in Dallas: A Study of Effects," (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, June, 1955), p. 48. See also Richard C. Henshaw and Alfred G. Dale, *An Economic Survey of Dallas County, Texas* (Austin, Bureau of Business Research, University of Texas, 1955), p. 167.

<sup>15</sup> McKnight, *op. cit.*, p. 98.

in the dangerous realm of prediction for an industry that is based largely on strategic rather than economic considerations.<sup>16</sup> No one can foresee what the defense needs of our country will be in future years, though it is logical to assume that major emphasis will be on air power. If the cold war continues and the larger producers are able to bid successfully for government contracts, the near future almost certainly will see increased production in the established facilities. A "shooting war," of course, would mean greatly stepped-up production. And even the dubious possibility of a world-wide period of peace and tranquillity might be only a temporary setback to the industry, as domestic airlines expand their service and require more and better equipment. However, competition among aircraft manufacturers in a peacetime or "normal" economy probably would be intense, as there are now so many producers and the commercial market absorbs less than 15 per cent of current production.

As uncertain as the future appears for the Texas aircraft-manufacturing industry, there are two notable straws in the wind: (1) Two new aircraft plants began operation in the state in 1956—Menasco in Fort Worth, and Radioplane in El Paso. Radioplane, a subsidiary of Northrup,<sup>17</sup> is engaged in modification and repair. (2) William Zeckendorf, famous New York real-estate promoter, has linked his resources with those of several Dallas and Fort Worth businessmen for the avowed purpose of developing a multi-million dollar industrial-commercial-residential area between the two Texas cities. The basic feature in this development will be industry, with emphasis on "machinery and aircraft plants." Thus the decentralization of the aircraft industry to the Texas plains may eventually result in a concentration that will itself need decentralization.

Despite the uncertainties, local planners are optimistic. The production of transportation equipment<sup>18</sup> now vies with food-processing as the leading type of manufacturing in the state.<sup>19</sup> Apparently aircraft manufacturing has come to Texas to stay, and as such it plays an increasingly important role in the economic geography of the local areas involved and of the state as a whole.

<sup>16</sup> Henshaw and Dale, *op. cit.*, p. 102.

<sup>17</sup> According to Stanley Arbingast (personal communication), of the Bureau of Business Research, University of Texas, Northrup has purchased a large tract of land and it is quite likely that it will begin operations in the near future.

<sup>18</sup> The census category "transportation equipment," when applied to Texas, essentially refers to the aircraft plants, some shipbuilding on the Gulf Coast, and two automobile-assembly plants.

<sup>19</sup> Texas Employment Commission statistics for January, 1956, show that food-processing employs 63,300 Texans, while the manufacture of transportation equipment requires 61,600 workers.

# A Sociological Comment on the Box-Camera Fan

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ALTHOUGH THE INVENTION of photographic film and its use in a simple camera has been one of the more important factors in our transient civilization, this phenomenon has been strangely ignored by sociologists. There seems to be no systematic study of the influence of film and camera on the social process. Yet the recording of history was revolutionized when picture-taking began. For instance, Mathew B. Brady, a nervously alert little man with a camera and a passionate sense of mission, made the Civil War live for posterity with his pictures of the still-littered field at Bull Run and of a sorely beset Lincoln and an inscrutable McClellan conferring in a tent after Antietam.

All the motion picture studios throughout the world are an outgrowth of a box camera and a strip of film. Alfred Stieglitz persuaded the world that photography might be accounted a fine art, and this art has become one of the most powerful propaganda devices of our time.

When, in 1888, George Eastman marketed his camera with its 100-exposure roll of film for \$10, he could hardly have realized what he was creating. Today pictures, and the taking of them, have become an essential part of our way of life. Hardly a newspaper, magazine, or advertisement that does not use photography in some form or other. Modern photography is a gigantic industry, a hobby for millions, and a means of livelihood for thousands. In 1952 it was estimated there were 55,000 professional photographers in the United States, plus some 35,000,000 amateurs. Of the latter it was estimated that about 28,000,000 were "casual," 5,000,000 were "serious," and 2,000,000 were experts.<sup>1</sup> In 1953, *Time* estimated that some 27,000,000 families in the United States owned cameras—as many as had automobiles and more than had telephones or television sets; 9,300,000 of them had two cameras; 1,500,000 had four or more. That year, amateurs were spending well over \$100 million on developing and printing; the photographic industry netted an estimated \$700 million (as against \$126 million in 1939). United States exports of still-picture photographic goods

<sup>1</sup> "Two Billion Clicks," *Time*, November 2, 1953, p. 70.

were valued at \$20,071,641 during the first half of 1955 (about 10.6 per cent higher than for the same period the preceding year); imports showed the same rise (reported by the United States Department of Commerce). Imports of still-picture photographic goods—including cameras, lenses, film, and paper—were valued at \$11,728,158 during the same period (almost 40 per cent higher than for the previous year). In 1955, West Germany produced 3,250,000 cameras, exporting 60 per cent of them, principally to the United States, despite the demands of its own huge domestic market (every third German more than twenty-five years old and every second German between sixteen and twenty-five owns a camera). Before the Second World War the avidity with which Japanese traveling abroad took pictures was a standard joke.

The camera hobby has some outstanding devotees. President Eisenhower, who likes the stereoscopic camera, has been shooting pictures for years, and many of his paintings have been copied from snapshots he took himself; his grandchildren, however, remain his favorite subjects for photographing. Queen Elizabeth II took pictures constantly during her tour of the Commonwealth, and Supreme Court Justice William O. Douglas carries cameras on his seemingly unending foreign tours.

Let us now look at a particular type of photographer—the box-camera fan.

It is usually taken for granted that the amateur photographer takes pictures for the fun of it, and that professionals do so to make a living. This simple explanation does not stand up under the scrutiny of a more careful analysis.

Every photographer takes a picture with some definite purpose: as a portrait, a record, a personal souvenir. The ability of the camera to record everything within its range of vision with astounding precision is a most attractive phenomenon to the camera fan. The "button-pusher" sees about him something which appears to be memorable and tries to seize it from the stream of time into a flat and shadowy sort of permanence. His picture is not so much created as caught, in an effort to compile a record of what goes on, especially in the human family. Above all, the fan's aim is to record an event, a person, or to tell a story of his life with as direct an effect as possible, and to tell his story at a glance. The photographer knows that he will be able to record an object in the form of a picture which, to him, is beautiful and which he proudly shows to his friends. But most amateur pictures are quite dull of subject and reproduction, since the usual picture of a family means nothing to an outsider and since colors are reduced to various shades of gray, three-dimensional space becomes two-dimensional planes, motion is arrested, and a still is substituted. But the camera fan is

enticed by the technical ease with which he can reproduce reality, can record things that are forever and continually vanishing, by looking through the viewfinder, pushing a button, and having the results within a day or two.

But the camera is not merely an interesting mechanical toy; it is a tool whose functions provide an unconscious compensation for the anxieties and uncertainties of daily endeavor, making the user feel he can master the flow of incidents around him in the most rewarding and expressive manner. In fact, the dynamics of the box-camera fan fit perfectly into the four basic categories of W. I. Thomas, according to which the behavior of the individual can be classified and understood, and which are attainable only in social interaction. (1) The wish for new experience—the desire for change, excitement, and adventure—is satisfied directly in the challenging adventure of producing records of family life or of one's surroundings. (2) The wish for recognition is demonstrable in the fulfilled desire for admiration and prestige, the desire for social approval, the longing to have one's behavior accepted, respected, and admired by other people by means of making the pictures, showing and giving them with pride to friends and relatives, and filing them away in the family album. (3) The wish for response is gratified not only by singling out the people or objects to be photographed but also by watching their reactions upon seeing the pictures. (4) The wish for security—which may be extended to include the desire for continued satisfaction of the other three wishes—is best demonstrated in the reassurance obtained by the photographer that, by taking the pictures, he is not only a self-respecting individual, able to contribute to the creative art, but also that he is making a permanent record of the important events in his life.

Those who spend their evenings developing their film in their own improvised darkrooms fit especially well into the category of Thomas' four criteria, particularly into that which he classifies as the wish for new experience. For here they became all-chemist, all-magician, all-artist; in fact, it is this operation that bewitches the tyro into becoming an incurable fan for the rest of his life. The darkroom offers infinite possibilities to transform run-of-the-mill negatives into something which they may not have been intended to be originally. All kinds of things can be done with multiple printing, by means of which either one or many negatives can be printed on a single sheet of paper for extraordinary effects; images can be distorted by tilting the enlarger easel in any direction, and surface textures can be changed or introduced by printing, through either homemade or commercial texture screens. Strange and bizarre effects can be obtained by means of image distortion, solarization, bas-relief, reticulation, etc.

These are some of the elements that have been making the camera hobby so universal. It is so absorbing that it sometimes crowds out the fan's other

hobbies. For instance, many bird-watchers now take color photographs of their quarry. Edgar M. Queeny, chairman of the board of Monsanto Chemical Company, began his fame as a photographer of animals when, as a duck-hunter, he simply took his camera along when on a shooting spree. An informal course in photography is now in full operation in more than twenty hospitals, most of them in the New York metropolitan area. It is conducted by the Volunteer Service Photographers,<sup>2</sup> an enthusiastic group of people who believe that creative flair and the diversified scope of photography can do much to encourage long-term patients, thereby ultimately shortening the length of hospitalization in many cases.

<sup>2</sup> Volunteer Service Photographers, comprised of amateur and professional photographers, teaches rehabilitation photography in service, Veterans' Administration, and civilian hospitals. It has been warmly welcomed by both hospital administrations and patients. It maintains offices at 292 Madison Avenue, New York City.



# Book Reviews

*Edited by*

H. MALCOLM MACDONALD

SAMUEL J. KONEFSKY: *The Legacy of Holmes and Brandeis: A Study in the Influence of Ideas*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1956. 316 pages. \$6.00.

It has been frequently remarked that most of the judges of the Roosevelt Court and their successors have regarded themselves, in varying degrees, as followers of the judicial philosophies of Oliver Wendell Holmes and Louis D. Brandeis. This is probably true, indeed, of the entire federal bench. Yet Holmes and Brandeis were in many ways dissimilar figures, as the common characterization of them as "skeptic" and "crusader" indicates. How, then, can a justice be a follower of both?

It is Konefsky's purpose to seek answers to this question. He attempts this through a comparative study of the legal ideas of the two men, and of the ways in which their moral and social philosophies worked through into their theories of the functions of the Supreme Court. The result is a fascinating detective story, written in the easy, non-technical style for which Konefsky has become known in previous works.

Whether he achieves his purpose is a matter for doubt. For his analysis seems to lead inevitably to the conclusion that later judges tend to be Holmesian when it suits their purposes

and Brandeisian at other times, that is, in his words, they don "the detachment idealized by Holmes" whenever it is possible, and, when the feelings involved are too deep, they use "the fusion of richly informed judgment and high social purpose" characteristic of Brandeis. Since these alternatives have always faced Supreme Court justices, however, it is to be questioned whether the "legacy" of Holmes and Brandeis consists in anything more than a store of quotations and precedents that can be hauled out on suitable occasions, thus adding the prestige of these great judges to the force of the immediate decision. Possibly the real legacy of Holmes and Brandeis has been to make each succeeding jurist conscious of his fate: that he has been forced by the American concept of judicial review to be both judge and law-giver. This means, in practice, that there are times when a judge must adopt the negative attitude of a Holmes—which means judicial self-restraint in the face of new governmental activities; but, equally, there are times when he must assume the mantle of a statesman, playing with Brandeis a creative role "in molding constitutional law to meet the needs of social change." This increasing awareness may be a positive benefit, for it makes it at least unlikely that any future Court will be as free to



translate its economic and social dogmas into Constitutional law as were those on which Holmes and Brandeis, protesting, sat. Their legacy, then, is a Supreme Court that is aware of its significant functions but wary of using its powers.

Konefsky, rather surprisingly, concludes that the future will judge Brandeis as the greater of the two, since he was "far more successful . . . in adapting law and its techniques to the stark realities of life in the twentieth century," using not "magnificent disinterest" but an understanding of the emerging needs of society.

Loren P. Beth  
*University of Florida*

SIDNEY C. SUFRIN and ROBERT C. SEDGWICK, *Labor Economics and Problems at Mid-Century*. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1956. 385 pages. \$5.75.

This textbook offers as its two product-differentiation features an insistent emphasis upon the importance of noneconomic factors in industrial relations and the preoccupation with the problem of maintaining a high general level of employment. Since the authors modestly admit that they are not experts prepared to take the student on excursions down social science "by-roads," their main contribution is the oft-repeated, so scarcely novel, pronouncement that all is not economic. The second area of differentiation leads to the frequent conclusion, à la Keynes, that the determinants of the general employment-level lie in nonlabor fields.

Of the book's seventeen chapters, the first two are introductory and stress the

noneconomic dimensions of labor problems. In Chapter 3 (on labor markets) the "labor monopoly" problem is introduced; the first systematic discussion of labor unions follows in Chapters 4-7. Both classical and contemporary wage-and-employment theories are presented in Chapters 8-10, followed by three chapters on labor and social legislation. The last substantive contribution—a review of labor and the law—comprises Chapter 14.

The final three chapters are a pot-pourri of fragmented essays on industrial relations. The authors conclude that labor-management-relations problems will somehow be worked out acceptably because American democracy is pragmatic.

In this book of handsome typography and large pages, much use has been made of statistical tables and of Labor press cartoons, which are not integrated into the text discussion. In the chapter, "Trade Unions and the Law," several pages are devoted to cartoons, while the emergency provisions of the Taft-Hartley Labor Act receive five sentences.

Frequent repetition and a number of serious errors were distracting to the reviewer. For instance, the diagrams accompanying wage - and - employment analysis appear in reverse order (pages 173-74) and unused diagram letters appear in the already-complicated discussion (page 177). Two tables listing company assets in 1946 and 1954 are discussed in terms of 1939 and 1949 (pages 23-25). The authors' examination of occupational distribution of labor from 1910 to 1950 accompanies three tables of different data for 1954, 1953, and 1950 which are not mentioned (pages 229-33). Al-

though the reader is told, "To argue that technological improvement automatically results in the absorption of the technologically unemployed is proper," the context suggests the opposite (page 227).

It is difficult to envision the possible audience the authors had in mind when they developed in a graduate seminar the basic idea for the book. However, the several excellent established texts in the labor economics field should not suffer an appreciable loss of popularity.

Kenneth M. Thompson  
Louisiana State University

ROBERT J. NIESS: *Julian Benda*. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1956. 361 pages. \$6.50.

CHARLES W. KEGLEY and ROBERT W. BRETALL (eds.): *Reinhold Niebuhr: His Religious, Social and Political Thought*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1956. 486 pages. \$6.50.

Julian Benda is best known to Americans as the author of *The Treason of the Intellectuals*. Niess, in this first full-length analysis in English of Benda's intellectual position, reminds us that Benda was a prolific writer and deplores the fact that not one American library has a complete collection of his works. One may accept the criticism of the parsimony of American librarians but question the implication that much has been lost thereby, for by the author's own admission *The Treason of the Intellectuals* epitomizes Benda's essential thought. His other works, whether they are literary criticism or illustrative of his running battle with Bergson and his school, are principally elaborations of the theme set down in *The Treason*.

Benda's thesis on the role of the intellectual has attracted considerable interest in this country, and some discussion of his views creeps into almost all courses on political theory, intellectual history, and literary criticism. It is perhaps even fortunate for Benda's reputation that he is known to us primarily through this one book, since it is the most readable and has the broadest application.

For the more serious student of Benda and of French intellectualism, Niess's work is of considerable value. It constitutes a painstaking analysis of Benda's intellectual position and attempts to place him in historic perspective in the French literary movement. Numerous quotations in the original French are included in the text, with translations of the longer passages furnished in an appendix. The bibliography is the only definitive one of Benda's works that this reviewer knows of.

As a biography, the work suffers from certain defects. The author's ponderous style fails to make his subject live for the reader. Intellectual *par excellence* though Benda may have been, he certainly had more human traits than Niess credits him with. One also gains the impression that the author does not really like his subject, for the whole work produces a negative view of Benda and his accomplishments. And yet, for all his rigidity, Benda did throw a challenge to the contemporary world, the challenge implicit in his formulation of the role of the intellectual. Benda did set a standard for intellectual performance and swept away the façade concealing the essential tawdriness of the French literary and intellectual life of his time. Like Ortéga's, his message

was international and provoked both violent repudiation and passionate concurrence. True enough, on occasion Benda was petulant, repetitious, and unfair, but in spite of these shortcomings—which the author so carefully documents—one could still say of him, "Here was a man!" The author has given us a scholarly, detailed analysis of Benda's thought, but the story of Benda the man remains to be written.

Reinhold Niebuhr is indubitably one of the ranking intellectuals in America today. While denying himself the right to the title of theologian, he remains the most vital theological voice on the American scene. In the field of social ethics he speaks with authority, and his philosophical system has invaded sociology and politics as well. It is therefore most fitting that *Reinhold Niebuhr: His Religious, Social and Political Thought* should comprise the second volume of *The Library of Living Theology*. It is a series of twenty essays analyzing and criticizing Niebuhr's thought. The scholars who contribute to this work come from related fields and analyze from different points of view Niebuhr's theological, political, ethical, and sociological positions. Accordingly, almost any social scientist will find one or more of the essays dealing specifically with his special interest.

But the book is more than this. It should be read as a whole in order to obtain an understanding of the fullness of Niebuhr's thought. Unlike many works of this type, this book pulls no punches. When the authors disagree with Niebuhr, they are frank in their criticisms and assertive of their opinions. Only once does an ungracious note creep in, and that is Emil Bruner's expression of pique for Niebuhr's

failure to mention his *Man in Revolt* as an alleged source of some of the ideas expressed in Niebuhr's Gifford Lectures. Niebuhr himself comments on his critics in the concluding chapter and also contributes an introductory essay on his own intellectual development. A definitive bibliography of Niebuhr's works completes the volume.

Indicative of a revival in the reading public's interest in ethical and philosophical subjects, this book should provoke many to read or re-read Niebuhr's books and will also, it is to be hoped, encourage some to tackle on their own the perennial problem of "the nature and destiny of man" as it rises against the background of twentieth-century frustrations.

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REX A. SKIDMORE, HULDA VAN STEETER GARRETT, and C. JAY SKIDMORE: *Marriage Consulting: An Introduction to Marriage Counseling*. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1956. 420 pages. \$5.00.

In a direct, nontechnical, readable style, the authors of *Marriage Consulting* present a well-documented survey of the history, philosophy, and basic principles and procedures of marriage counseling. Intended primarily for introductory courses in marriage counseling, the book is also a valuable source of information for anyone who engages in "marriage consulting." Emphasizing the need for premarital, marital, and family counseling, the authors devote considerable attention to persons who perform such services: friends and relatives; public advisors—including char-

latans who do an estimated \$375 million business annually; professional marriage counselors in private practice or working through private or social agencies; and various other professional persons.

Inasmuch as so many professional people—lawyers, doctors, clergymen, nurses, educators, and social workers—are so often called upon for counseling, the authors emphasize the need for them to be more cognizant of the services they can give and to prepare themselves better for this task. Such preparation should include some training in the biological, legal, psychological, and sociological aspects of marriage as well as an understanding of the basic principles and techniques of counseling. An introduction to the latter is interestingly illustrated by case histories, in the second half of the book.

Throughout the discussion, the reader is reminded that the role of the counselor, whether professional or nonprofessional, is not to tell the counselee what to do or to make decisions for him, but rather to assist him in making his own decisions. Emphasis is also placed upon the need for the counselor to recognize his own limitations and to make referrals for medical, psychiatric, religious, or legal counseling when the need for such help is indicated.

As a profession, marriage counseling is seen as having emerged (primarily during the past thirty years) from infancy into its early-growth period. Two of the greatest needs at the moment are the certification of marriage counselors and legislation permitting them to refuse to divulge "privileged information" in court. Inasmuch as marriage counseling is a broad field, involving a multidisciplinary approach, profes-

sional training constitutes a further problem. These and other matters of importance are presently under consideration by the American Association of Marriage Counselors. Looking into the future, the authors predict that marriage counseling "will gradually take its place as one of the fully accepted professions."

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GEORGE LEE SIMPSON, JR.: *The Cokers of Carolina: A Social Biography of a Family*. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1956. 327 pages. \$5.00.

This book tells of the Coker couple who married and settled, in 1830, in Society Hill, in the "middle country" of South Carolina, and of those among the hundreds of their descendants "who, in the public eye and by common agreement, have been a part of a notable achievement," down into the fourth generation today. The founders ran a country store, traded cotton, and planted. Some of their descendants, still living in nearby Hartsville, are leading citizens, controlling prosperous manufacturing and commercial enterprises; others have made academic reputations. The theme is the proliferation and interdependence of family interests, as the generations succeeded, while at the same time ties of loyalty and sentiment were maintained. It is also, implicitly, a homily on the virtues.

Nearly a third of the book is devoted to the first couple and their life in the years up to and through the Civil War. Of their ten children, two sons fought in the war, were wounded, captured,

and survived; another was killed, and a fourth son was too young for military service. The girls go largely unsung.

Most of the book, covering roughly the years from Reconstruction through the First World War, deals with the two veterans—"the Captain" and "the Major"—and several of their sons as they branched out in various lines and won recognition. One path led to the building of a railroad spur, followed by the construction and operation of the first pulp-and-paper mill to use Southern pine. Another involved pioneering in scientific plant breeding, the development of long-staple cotton, and the establishment of a nonprofit pedigreed seed firm that anticipated the work of the county extension agent system. The Captain's sons led those who favored academic pursuits; the clan has produced college professors of mathematics, botany, zoology, economics, and political science, and helped found a boarding high school, which later became Coker College (for women). In an era marked by Tillmanism, none of the family moved very far into politics beyond the immediate community.

The story is a case study, selected according to no "scientific" criteria. Having some acquaintance with two of the third-generation figures, I found the book a labor of love to read, like looking at an album of a good friend's relatives. For most readers it is a contribution chiefly to the cultural and economic history of a part of South Carolina. The author is a sociologist, but he writes as a regional historian. The Rockefeller Foundation commissioned the writing, and it must have found that a labor of love, too.

Harvey C. Mansfield  
The Ohio State University

JOSEPH B. GITTLER (ed.): *Understanding Minority Groups*. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956. 139 pages. \$3.25.

This volume consists of eight contributions originally presented as lectures at the Institute on Minority Groups in the United States, sponsored by the Center for the Study of Group Relations, of the University of Rochester.

The first contribution, "The Philosophical and Ethical Aspects of Group Relations," by Wayne A. R. Leys, is an interesting chapter and is summarized by the author himself as follows: "Our ideals of improved human relations require better use of certain social sciences and practical arts that, thus far, have not been in the forefront of the intergroup education movements." Subsequent chapters are "The American Catholic," by Rev. John LaFarge; "The United States Indian," by John Collier, to which is appended a commentary by Theodore H. Haas; "The American Jew," by Oscar Handlin; "The American Negro," by Ira de A. Reid; "The Japanese American," by Dorothy Swaine Thomas; and "The Puerto Rican in the United States," by Clarence Senior. The concluding chapter, by the editor, is entitled "Understanding Minority Groups" and deals with the nature of minority groups ("prejudice and discrimination furnish the clue"), the consequences of prejudice upon personality, the concept of marginality, and certain principles "that are helpful in gaining insight . . . and reducing intergroup tensions."

None of these contributors attempts to give a comprehensive picture of the minority group with which he deals, but each treats, rather, some aspect of

the group and the problem that it poses. For instance, Reid discusses ten significant social movements (Niagara, Great Migration, Back-to-Africa, Father Divine, etc.) that express the Negro's hopes and aspirations, and Handlin traces the adjustment of the Jew to American society through three distinct chronological phases.

These authors are foremost in the areas of their special interests, and one cannot read them without profit. To that extent, then, the book does contribute to our "understanding minority groups." One would profit even more, of course, by reading their more comprehensive publications on the same topics.

The book is built around the ideas that "diversity is part of our world . . . and we must learn to live with it," and that prejudice, discrimination, and intolerance are dispelled by information.

Brewton Berry

*The Ohio State University*

W. C. NUNN: *Escape from Reconstruction*. Fort Worth, Leo Potishman Foundation, 1956. 140 pages. \$2.50.

This is the story of those Confederates who, fearing the vengeance of a victorious North and the destruction of the ideals for which they had fought, decided to colonize in Mexico after the Civil War. Based upon research in the United States and Mexico and boasting such a star-studded cast as Sterling Price, Edmund Kirby-Smith, Jubal A. Early, Matthew Fontaine Maury, and Maximilian and his beautiful Carlota, it holds high promise.

Unfortunately, this promise never quite materializes, possibly for reasons

beyond the author's control. For one thing, not much has been added to the general knowledge of the venture. Nunn found disappointingly little in the Mexican sources and only a fifth of the footnotes refer to such material, including repetition of the same documents. Consequently, he has had to rely basically upon known American accounts, which apparently have been diligently searched. But most of the questions that have long puzzled historians remain unanswered: for example, why did Maximilian reject Dr. Gwin's project for colonization while accepting practically all others?

In the absence of important new evidence, perhaps the author should have abandoned his scholarly impedimenta and deliberately set out to write a popular account of the venture. As it stands, his story is marred by chapters that consist of overly long quotations strung together by thin threads of narrative. His footnote technique is inconsistent to the point of confusion. The index is brief but usable. The book will probably be most valuable to scholars as a bibliography for materials presently available on the subject and for the appendix giving A. J. Hanna's "Incomplete and Tentative" list of Confederates going to Mexico in 1865 and 1866.

The 1867 prediction by a New Orleans *Picayune* correspondent that a future history of the settlement would be "stranger than any fiction . . .; full of human weaknesses and frailties; curious and grave and gay" has not yet been realized. Perhaps it will never be.

John S. Ezell

*University of Oklahoma*



BROOKINGS LECTURES: *The Changing Environment of International Relations*. Washington, D.C., The Brookings Institution, 1956. 158 pages. \$2.50.

This volume presents the third series of Brookings Lectures devoted to exploring specific aspects of the world situation. Taken individually, most of the conclusions are not particularly new or revealing, but together they offer an impressive picture of the great changes in the atmosphere of international relations.

The changes are ascribed to the tremendous dynamic forces released by man's new knowledge of himself and of his environment. These forces affect his institutions and his material, moral, and ethical values. They would be operative even if there were no Cold War, and the problems would be basically the same even without Communist intransigence.

The first two lectures outline these changes, and the impact the changes have on international relations. The following two lectures focus more specifically on the existing conflicts in governmental and political institutions and on the problems faced by an expanding world economy. The last two deal with the prospects of co-operation between the newly emerged Asiatic nations and the Western world.

The picture they show is not encouraging, but it is honest and realistic. The need for better mutual understanding is emphasized. The attitude of Asia is cited as a good example of how difficult it is to remove the suspicion and distrust created in the past. Prudence, patience, and an approach to co-operation that minimizes the differences and

stresses the similarities are the keys to the solution of the problems confronting the world. Hasty condemnation and impatience must be avoided. The need to become more aware of the effect that domestic behavior has abroad is illustrated by the way in which grudging and unwilling assistance loses its efficacy.

It may seem that faith in the success of our civilization should have been given more weight, and it could have been stated that the American people have made progress in adjusting themselves to the tasks world leadership has thrust upon them. Still, these lectures offer many facts and ideas in exposing the difficulties of international relations in today's world. They suggest many helpful ways of improving the American approach to the problems such relations present. The lectures, moreover, are couched in a style that makes for enjoyable reading.

Ludwig H. Mai  
St. Mary's University  
of San Antonio

ALLAN P. SINDLER: *Huey Long's Louisiana*. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1956. 316 pages. \$5.50.

This scientific, comprehensive, and objective study of Louisiana politics from 1920 through 1952 emphasizes the state's one-party bifactionalism. The major political development of the three decades is well arranged and interpreted in nine chapters, covering the background, the reign of the Kingfish as governor and senator, and appraisal of Huey Long, the efforts and near-failures of the reform governors, and the return of Earl Long as governor in 1948.



In this complete story of Louisiana politics, the author never loses sight of Huey Long and his influence. He pictures the class conflicts of the nineteenth century as preparing the state for Huey's leadership, and credits him with arousing a new interest in politics and government, especially among the masses, rating him as "one of the most useful and effective demagogues produced by the new South." He sees Long's principal achievements as highway expansion, his fight against adult illiteracy, his free-textbook program, his aid to the state university, and bifactionalism.

Although Long is represented as a worthy opponent of Franklin Roosevelt, the Standard Oil executives, and the New Orleans Choctaws, the author criticizes freely and lengthily his character and political methods. He speaks of the forty-five state taxes in 1935, "many of them burdensome nuisance levies," which gave Louisiana the second highest per capita state debt in the nation. In summary of the Long leadership, Sindler believes that "a thorough program was carried through by Long in only one particular: the erection of a dictatorship. . . . The guidestar of the Kingfish was politics, not service."

The lesser leaders are also given due attention. Sam Houston Jones "permanently revised the concept of government from that of an avenue of personal gain to one of public service." The Robert Kennon administration "took giant strides in the field of good government." Earl Long "outstripped the Kingfish only in the magnitude of state taxation and expenditure."

To produce this book, Sindler carefully analyzed an amazing mass of political records and statistics and held a

great many interviews with Louisiana political observers and participants. In an excellent and lengthy critical bibliography, he rates as the ablest studies of the Kingfish those by Forrest Davis, Carlton Beals, and Hermann B. Deutsch.

S. S. McKay

*Texas Technological College*

HANS W. WEIGERT, HENRY BRODIE, EDWARD W. DOHERTY, JOHN R. FERNSTROM, ERIC FISCHER, and DUDLEY KIRK: *Principles of Political Geography*. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957. 723 pages. \$7.95.

For the scholar or layman interested in the general question "What is going on in the world?" this is an impressively informative and tremendously challenging book. Written by a six-man team of professional geographers, political scientists, economists, and demographers, it undertakes the task of "making the reader realize the importance and magnitude of the problems that arise from the interrelationship of political and geographical factors." The result, as Weigert asserts in the opening sentence of the Introduction, "is not an ordinary textbook." It will and should be widely used as a textbook, however, and this reviewer, though fearful that the below-average student may be overwhelmed by such a massive array of facts and ideas in a single volume, is inclined to give it a four-star rating.

The use of the word "principles" in the title may mislead some readers into expecting to find here a set of clearly stated laws or rules by which nations

grow and develop in response to challenges emitted by the generally passive physical or cultural landscape. If it is trite to say that political geography is the least passive and most dynamic of all fields of systematic geography, so be it. The authors of *Principles of Political Geography* make no particular effort to define or even to emphasize principles, and they might better have used some such term as "fundamentals" or "elements" in their title. Little, if anything, is accomplished by this book in furthering the theory of political geography, a matter regarded as urgent by such writers as Richard Hartshorne and Jean Gottmann. Though recognizing the desirability of searching for principles and developing theories, this reviewer is naïve enough to enjoy the fact that almost every new political geography publication is refreshingly different. This surely is one of the best of them.

The topics covered divide rather naturally into three major parts, of approximately equal length. Part I, "The Spatial Factor in Political Geography," by Eric Fischer and Hans W. Weigert, surveys the role of location, size, shape, boundaries, political "core areas," capital cities, and communications in national development and political problems. Ever since the first edition of Friedrich Ratzel's *Politische Geographie*, published just fifty years ago, these have been standard topics in political geography, but the treatment here is fresh, scholarly, and attractively presented. While dealing competently, if briefly, with such topics of general interest as the role of space in national defense, the significance of communications in the integration of cultural groups, the sector theory in claims to polar lands and seas, and the never-

ending ramifications of the Mackinder "Heartland" theory, the authors tempt the interest of professionals with choice tidbits on such obscure topics as the Dilolo Boot, the Caprivi Strip (not an exotic dance), the "almost-exclave" of Jungbluth, the Reichenall salt mines, and the Buraimi oasis.

Part II, "The Human and Cultural Factor in Political Geography," by Dudley Kirk, includes an excellent summary of demographic conditions. Using the wealth of statistical data that has been made available in recent years by the United Nations and various governmental agencies, Kirk portrays the political and geographic significance of population pressures on food supplies, national boundaries, and underdeveloped areas. The geographers, Weigert and Fischer, handle in gratifyingly original fashion the impact of linguistic and religious complexities on problems of unity and diversity in national development.

Two State Department experts, Henry Brodie and Edward W. Doherty, are the authors of Part III, "The Economic Factor." The role of resources and technical skills in the differential development of wealth and power over the world is presented in a series of regional chapters, closing with "Africa: The Last Stand of Colonialism." The treatment here is perhaps a bit too encyclopedic for ideal textbook usage, but the facts presented are well selected and the ideas generally sound.

*Principles of Political Geography* is a carefully conceived and well-edited book, more successful than most multi-authored books with which this reviewer is familiar. The editors have adopted a rather more liberal use of footnotes than is customary in geog-

raphy textbooks these days, and the skillful use of source materials—ranging from newspapers and journals like *The New York Times*, the *Wall Street Journal*, *The Economist*, and the *Neue Zürcher Zeitung* to the familiar United Nations documents and the standard books and periodicals in geography and international relations—is apparent on nearly every page. John R. Fernstrom contributed as his share of the book some 115 well-designed and generally well-executed maps.

Ralph E. Olson  
University of Oklahoma

ROBERT D. HAY, and RAYMOND V. LESIKAR: *Business Report Writing*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 352 pages. \$5.50.

This book has three principal objectives: (1) to teach students how to communicate information in written reports; (2) to teach them a logical approach in solving business problems; (3) to familiarize them with some of the more common types of business reports. As a concomitant of these goals, the authors believe a student will develop also a clear, correct style of writing adapted to the type of reader for whom the report is intended; the ability to collect, organize, analyze, and present information to solve business problems; competence in putting the report message in an appropriate format; an awareness of correct grammar and punctuation.

Divided into five parts and eighteen chapters, the book includes such titles as "The What and Why of Business Report Writing," "The Construction of Various Report Types," "Principles and

Standards Concerning the 'Effect' of a Report," "Standards and Principles of the Medium of Reporting," and "Reports as Tools of Management." At the end of each chapter is a set of questions pertinent to the text as well as to related business problems. These may be used for oral or written analysis in report form. Typical business situations or conditions amenable to analysis in reports of varying lengths are presented in a final section.

The authors have made every effort to acquaint students with the business writing they will be required to do on almost any job. Following the chapter "Constructing the Report," is a full reproduction of a long, formal report covering a timely advertising problem, and Chapter 18, "Familiarization with Some Common Business Reports," shows this type of communication as a tool of management.

Equipped with the skills that *Business Report Writing* attempts to give him, a student should be able to tackle the reports he will have to make at whatever level he may enter the business world.

Ruth Musgrave Coole  
University of Texas

W. KENNETH RICHMOND: *Education in the USA*. New York, Philosophical Library Inc., 1956. 227 pages. \$4.50.

Kenneth Richmond's analysis of education in the United States is a contribution to the field of comparative studies. His interpretation should be of value on both sides of the water, for, throughout, the suggestion is implicit that no nation has a monopoly on intellectual ingenuity.

He begins by asking: "Are we so sure that [British] Grammar School pupils are 'two years ahead' in anything other than scholarly attainment? . . . Why is it that life in a highly mobile society is so invigorating (and to that extent educative) while here at home things seem to be slowly coming to a standstill? Why is it that after joining in the merry-go-round of an American College campus, the sedate atmosphere of a British University strikes one as chilly by comparison? Why is it that crossing the Atlantic from east to west *feels* like a journey into the past?"

In contrast, he feels that American emphasis upon the child-centered school and the school-centered community seems to result in too much emphasis upon economic success and conformity to group approval, a lack of intellectual and social values, and an admiration for size and quantitative increase rather than for quality. He criticizes the overuse of "new-type" multiple-choice examinations as "dipsticks for testing exact knowledge," and the prevalence of students from graduate classes "brought up on 'new-type' examination techniques, not one of whom was capable of writing a coherent statement." Many American critics agree.

One oversimplification should be subjected to at least the beginnings of a critique. For purposes of contrast, the author deliberately classifies the British and American philosophies of education into two extreme positions: the Traditional (British) Point of View—inclined to trust in the past and its intellectual development—over against the Progressive (American) Point of View—essentially forward-looking and emphasizing the need for all-round development. Then he goes

on to point out: "It need not be supposed that the quarrel between the 'progressives' and the 'traditionalists,' or, if one prefers to change the party labels, between the Jacksonians and the Jeffersonians, has been finally composed even in the United States." Jefferson was a radical and progressive thinker, who wished not only to seek out and nurture an elite from the poor as well as the rich but to raise the level of education for all, and to erect a wall of separation between Church and State. Jackson, following a similar frontier doctrine of political freedom, extended voting rights but expressed little in the way of an articulate philosophy of education. Lincoln was of the same totem and through the 1862 Morrill Act extended universal education into higher education. The contrasting philosophy was that of Hamilton, the Federalists, and others who wished to restrict to the few the opportunities for learning. Therefore the Jeffersonian versus Jacksonian generalization is misleading.

Richmond's analysis of educational administration includes some plain-spoken observations, e.g., "Significantly enough the most heated opposition to the principle of increased federal aid for education has come from the Roman Catholics, from business interests and from the leading patriotic organizations." In illuminating sketches he describes the roles of local, state, and federal authorities. Investigating teachers and their role, he is disturbed by their lack of prestige (regarding "Ichabod Crane as the prototype of the American teacher"), the lack of tenure, and the prevalence of outside restrictions and distractions.

As regards elementary education, the author feels that progressivism and

Dewey's pragmatism, though contributing to liveliness, happiness, and efficiency, have submerged the individual in the social mass, so conditioning the young that they will eventually be unable to make decisions for themselves in a fluid and dynamic world.

In the realm of secondary education, the analyst questions the effectiveness of the comprehensive American high school, with its emphasis upon life adjustment to the environment *as it is* though the American culture is in a state of flux. Yet he feels that the head is "bien faite" in the sense of Montaigne and that the zest for life and learning is stimulated in the high school as the hub of democracy.

In his investigation of higher education, Richmond points out that, measured vertically, attainment is less than desired, though improving, while horizontally the achievements of "the universality of the people" are impressive. He feels that mass-education has been made possible through mass-production methods but the "popularization does not necessarily mean vulgarization." The very *ad hoc* approach in teaching and research has enabled American scholarship to make original contributions in fields comparatively neglected in Europe, such as the social sciences. He comments with bitterness upon what he calls the pettifogging mechanical system of credit hours unrelated to a comprehensive grasp of fundamental disciplines.

This is a stimulating study that we have merely sampled. The author could have used to advantage Hofstadter and Hardy's *Development and Scope of Higher Education in the United States*, J. P. Marquand's *Point of No Return*, Van Wyck Brooks's *The World of*

*Washington Irving*, and Merle Curti's *The Social Ideas of American Educators* in addition to the sources he did use. Why doesn't the table of contents have pagination?

Arthur Henry Moehlman  
University of Texas

EMIL J. SADY: *The United Nations and Dependent Peoples*. Washington, D.C., The Brookings Institution, 1956. 205 pages. \$1.50.

If any one sphere were to be singled out as the one in which the United Nations has most radically moved away from and beyond the precedents set by the League of Nations, it would presumably be that of colonialism. In the League's time, self-determination was a concept reserved almost exclusively for European use, and the colonial problem came to international recognition only within the limited confines of the Mandates System. In the profoundly changed world that emerged from the Second World War, self-determination has been earmarked as peculiarly the right of the colonial peoples, and the anticolonial forces, pressing the language of the Charter to its limits, have made long strides toward taking over the United Nations as their own instrument.

It is this broad theme that Emil J. Sady has set out to survey in a book that is later to form a part of the volume *The United Nations and Promotion of the General Welfare*, the series of studies on the United Nations currently being issued by The Brookings Institution. He brings to it not only an intimate knowledge of the procedures and practices of the United Nations but also

his own experience in dealing with the problems of American dependencies while serving in the Department of the Interior.

After a preliminary survey of the general scene and the drafting of the relevant provisions of the Charter, Sady turns to his three principal substantive topics: postwar colonial developments, with special reference to the role of the United Nations; the functioning of the General Assembly and the Committee on Information under Chapter XI; and the evolution of the Trusteeship System. Under each heading he has produced a useful combination of factual reporting on what is actually being done—including a survey of the main points of controversy, and of critical analysis in terms of the practical results as well as of the legality or propriety of the actions in relation to the wording and apparent intent of the Charter.

It is Sady's belief that the administering powers are usually capable of working out mutually satisfactory arrangements with their dependent peoples without the United Nations' intervention, and he politely expresses doubt as to whether the pressures of the anti-colonialists can always be counted on to yield desirable results. In an interesting concluding comment he suggests that there is "something unreal about much that has happened in the United Nations on matters relating to dependent territories," citing in illustration the unhappy gap between the rigid, defensive position that the United Kingdom has felt itself forced to adopt under anticolonial attack and the enlightened policy that it is actually carrying out in its dependencies. Although he offers no cure-all for the ills that he

finds in the existing United Nations system, Sady appears to place much reliance on the perhaps utopian hope that at a number of points expert judgment might be substituted for political maneuvering.

Rupert Emerson  
Harvard University

FRANZ STEINER: *Taboo*, ed. Laura Bohannan, with a preface by E. E. Evans-Pritchard. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1956. 154 pages. \$4.75.

This small volume, a posthumous publication, consists of a series of lectures delivered at Oxford University several years ago. Steiner took a Ph.D. degree in Semitic studies at the University of Prague, but shortly before the Nazis overran Czechoslovakia he went to Oxford for advanced work in social anthropology. In 1950 he was appointed to a lectureship in social anthropology at Oxford, a post he held until his untimely death in 1952 at the age of forty-four. Although a brilliant teacher and a remarkably learned man, Steiner published very little in the field of anthropology before his death. *Taboo* is one of a number of his manuscripts now being published by his colleagues at Oxford.

The title suggests that this volume is a general study of the concept of taboo, perhaps replete with widely selected illustrative materials. Instead it is a critical analysis of the classic theories of taboo. The book begins with three brief chapters on taboo in Polynesia, for it was from this area that the word "taboo" was introduced into European



languages by Captain James Cook, the famous English navigator. Steiner thinks that the concept of taboo became a late-nineteenth-century preoccupation because "Victorian society itself was one of the most taboo-minded and taboo-ridden societies on record." He even goes so far as to say that the *problem* of taboo was a Victorian invention.

Steiner reviews in considerable detail, and with extensive quotations, the theories of Robertson Smith, Frazer, Marett, Levy-Bruhl, Van Gennep, Radcliffe-Brown, Wundt, and Freud. With lucidity and real skill he points out the deficiencies in each theoretical contribution, and then ends the volume rather abruptly with a short summary of his critical evaluations. Had he lived longer, Steiner would perhaps have evaluated some of the more recent contributions to the theory of taboo and possibly have made a significant theoretical contribution himself. His work will have most value for those who are specifically interested in avoidance behavior and its explanation, and for those who are interested in the intellectual history of Western Europe.

T. N. Campbell  
University of Texas

ROBERT N. ANTHONY: *Management Accounting—Text and Cases*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1956. 511 pages. \$6.50.

This book successfully combines the case problem and the textbook approach to management accounting. It should be especially useful in classes where the students have not yet developed skill in using the library references necessary for the solution of

case problems as they are normally presented.

Each case is preceded by concise, well-written text. This preliminary material enables the student to begin the solution of the cases. The author has shown excellent taste and self-discipline in restricting the text to pertinent, underlying principles without becoming involved in the mechanical techniques of bookkeeping that comprise a large part of most accounting texts. Controversial points and alternative procedures are recognized, but it remains for the student to carry out his own exploratory research.

Almost half of Part Two is also basic accounting, the accounting that is usually taught at the intermediate or cost-accounting levels. The chapters "Fund Flow Statements," "Ratios and Percentages," and "Analysis of Cost Accounting Variances" are superior to their counterparts in standard texts on accounting. The rest of Part Two is compatible with and strengthens the accounting principles presented in the other chapters.

The cases throughout the book attempt to preserve the "feel" of a live business situation. The use of dialogue aids greatly in lifting the case studies above the typical static treatment. Teachers presently distressed by the trend toward mechanics and techniques in textbooks will find this one refreshing and possibly a solution to their needs in teaching accounting rather than bookkeeping.

Elzy V. McCollough  
Louisiana State University

LEWIS J. EDINGER: *German Exile Politics: The Social Democratic Execu-*



*tive Committee in the Nazi Era.* Berkeley, University of California Press, 1956. 329 pages. \$4.25.

In recent years considerable interest has been evidenced in the history, theory, and development of the German Social Democratic Party. This has been all to the good, for it has corrected a lamentable tendency to lump all manifestations of Marxian socialism under one heading, thus failing to discriminate between the truly democratic socialist movement and the totalitarianism of the Lenin-Stalin school. The present book deals with the history of the dispersal of the Social Democratic executive following Hitler's advent to power and its gradual disintegration into a group of "generals without armies." The story is fairly told, probably because it is written by an "outsider" not personally involved in the inevitable bickering and argument characteristic of members of exile groups. The author's treatment is factual and he has made good use of the limited source material available in the United States. He avoids theorizing nor does he attempt, as he admits in his preface, to present an *Ideengeschichte* of the Socialist exile thought. This has already been done by Erich Matthias in his *Sozialdemokratie und Nation: Zur ideengeschichte der Sozialdemokratischen Emigration 1933-38*, to which readers interested in this approach may turn for enlightenment.

What the author attempts to do, he does well. In an excellent introductory chapter he discusses the reaction of the party to the rise of Hitler and demonstrates that because of its own internal nature it was unable to meet effectively the Nazi challenge. The central chap-

ters trace the life of the exile executive from its optimistic establishment in Prague to its emaciated existence in Paris. From this discussion certain salient facts emerge: first, that the official party executive, despite its Marxist foundation, never really abandoned the liberal, democratic, revisionist policy that had characterized its past development. Dominated by the old conservative leadership, it tended to see in the Hitler revolution a repetition of the Bismarkian situation and sought to meet the new challenge with strategies devised for the old. This led to the forming of splinter groups to the left of the executive, who demanded on one side that the party return to "orthodox" revolutionary Marxism in practice as well as theory, and on the other to a "new beginning" based on cadres of young revolutionary leaders who rejected the old determinist fallacy of Marxism and called for a new departure in tactics and organization. The executive, except for the moment of wavering evidenced in the Manifesto of 1934, resisted these pressures and held out for the traditional conservative revisionist approach. Although the left opposition, particularly the "new beginning" group, in many cases analyzed more correctly the strength, nature, and durability of the Nazi regime than did the party executive, the older leaders were wiser in the long run in clinging to their liberal tradition and in their attempt to appeal to all persons of good will within the Third Reich.

The concluding portion of the work deals rather cursorily with the postwar fate of the Social Democratic exiles. The author evidently felt that this was outside the scope of his work, which is basically concerned with the politics of

the party during its exile. His study of this limited period gives us a clear picture of the problems confronting an *émigré* political group; the psychological difficulties of exile, the inevitable development of factions, the petty quarreling, and the gradual drying up of resources and of hopes as the hostile regime remains in power.

Of special value is Edinger's careful identification of the leading personalities and their backgrounds. In this respect he has performed a valuable service to American scholars. His bibliography will serve as a useful introduction to the literature in the field. The book is important not only for its elucidation of the development of the German Social Democracy in exile but also because it affords a prospective for understanding and evaluating the present strategy and politics of the party that is today the second largest in West Germany.

H. Malcolm Macdonald  
University of Texas

DONALD E. WORCESTER and WENDELL C. SCHAEFFER: *The Growth and Culture of Latin America*. New York, Oxford University Press, 1956. 963 pages. \$6.00.

This volume is a general history of the independent countries of South and Central America and of the Caribbean area, including Mexico. It is intended as a text for introductory courses in North American universities. Although major emphasis is given to political and military events, the processes of growth and development are also stressed, and the authors show an extensive knowl-

edge of the economic, social, and cultural aspects of Latin American life.

The reviewer, who would like his fellow-"Americans" to have a better understanding and appreciation of Latin America, is glad to see this book. However, although the role of the United States in relation to her neighbors is presented with reasonable objectivity, there is not very much indication of what might be called "prevailing Latin-American points of view." Having been raised in Cuba, I was particularly struck that the entire credit was given to North American doctors for discovering the mosquito as the carrier of yellow fever. It was a Cuban doctor who developed the theory, and physicians from both hemispheres, as well as other volunteers, courageously helped to verify it and carried out a notable campaign to eradicate the disease. Although this is an isolated error, it is one of the instances of conflict that are over-emphasized as compared with those of co-operative action.

It is, of course, a gigantic task to try to cover the development and culture of twenty different countries and almost half the area and population of the Western hemisphere within the covers of one book. The type of data presented as well as the amount of space devoted to each aspect of a people's life and development depends not only on the information available but also upon the purpose the authors have in mind and their value systems. Almost half the volume is devoted to the genesis, consolidation, and maturity of empire; an additional one fourth to the revolutionary period and the struggle for political stability; one eighth to the middle and later nineteenth century; and only about a hundred pages to what might

be called the "modern" period. In an effort to follow the threads of development in the different countries and areas throughout all the major periods, there is repetition in the last part that could have been omitted to advantage.

Robert Cuba Jones  
Mexico, D.F.

MANUEL R. GARCÍA-MORA: *International Law and Asylum as a Human Right*. Washington, Public Affairs Press, 1956. 171 pages. \$4.50.

With the development of totalitarianism and the political convulsions of the mid-twentieth century, the problem of granting asylum to refugees has assumed new dimensions, as recent events demonstrate. The same reasons that have demanded increasing concern for this problem may also partially explain the expanding interest in the West in human rights. This book, a product of both concerns, is a contribution to the growing literature in each area.

Arguing from the untraditional premise that individuals are the "real subjects" of international law, García-Mora maintains that no system of human rights is complete that does not guarantee the right of the individual to seek, and to be granted, asylum. Only then can individuals be protected against their own governments—the source of "much present-day human persecution"—and only then can a system which is designed to protect human rights and which lacks central enforcing agencies be made effective. After stating the philosophical and juridical bases for his own position, the author then critically examines the existing law of asylum. With its empha-

sis on sovereignty and the consequent discretionary right of states to grant asylum, it falls far short of his criteria. In general, he would be more willing to grant political refuge, but also more willing to extradite common criminals and even those involved in misdemeanors than is the existing practice. Throughout, it is argued that the application of strict legal doctrine is not "worth while" if human rights and values are sacrificed in the process.

Perhaps the book contributes most in its detailed description of the present law of asylum and in some of its less-sweeping suggestions for modification of this law—for example, the suggestions that the changed conditions of the twentieth century have destroyed the rationale for those clauses in extradition treaties that deal with attempted crimes of violence and also have made it desirable that deserters be given greater assurance of protection.

As the author himself foresaw, the practicability of his over-all argument can be questioned. It may be, as he and others argue, that the advance of international law can best be achieved by focusing attention on problems of human rights, but it would hardly seem that asylum—a traditional preserve of state sovereignty—would be likely to have a place in the early stages of such a reformulation. The statements of the major powers in the United Nations' debates on human rights clearly indicate that it would not.

Harold Karan Jacobson  
University of Houston

WILLIAM W. PIERSON and FEDERICO G. GIL: *Governments of Latin America*. New York, McGraw-Hill

Book Company, Inc., 1957. 514 pages. \$6.50.

The authors of this work on the governments of the Latin-American nations have brought together an array of data quite impressive in its range of subject matter. This material has been organized topically to treat the area as a whole rather than by individual states. In addition to chapters devoted to strict governmental organization, such useful and unusual topics (for this type of book) as colonial administration, constitutional developments, dictatorship and revolution, labor and social legislation, economics and finance, education, Church-State relations, and Latin-American international affairs have been included. These chapters alone make this work a valuable contribution to Latin-American studies. The breadth of the source materials and the judiciousness of the authors' generalizations show careful scholarship and thorough familiarity with the people and literature of the area.

The major defect of the book, in the opinion of this reviewer, is its topical approach to the subject matter, a method particularly disturbing in the sections dealing with the central theme of governmental institutions. Thus in separate chapters the authors have portrayed a generalized or typical development of the executive, legislature, courts, local government, and political parties in Latin America. To these portrayals are appended the numerous exceptions to, or deviations from, the norm. Some nations receive relatively little individual consideration—presumably because they are rather typical—while others appear frequently as departures from the general rule. The re-

sult is that no clear picture of the system of government in any particular nation has emerged, and little analysis of internal political forces has been possible. In attempting to trace the thread of Chilean government through the book, this reviewer felt that the elements included from that nation's governmental system were presented in too random a manner to allow a coherent understanding of it. Moreover, certain vital matters, such as executive-legislative relations, were omitted entirely.

Since Latin America is composed of twenty different governments, each functioning in its own peculiar fashion, perhaps it is time to recognize that all of them cannot be treated adequately in a single volume, either one-by-one or in generalized form.

Frank M. Lewis  
University of South Dakota

## Other Books Received

June, 1957

Alderson, Wroe: *Marketing Behavior and Executive Action: A Functional Approach to Marketing Theory*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 487 pages. \$6.50.

Bailey, Stephen K., Howard D. Samuel, and Sidney Baldwin: *Government in America*. New York, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1957. 587 pages.

Bain, Henry M., Jr., and Donald S. Heckock, with a foreword by V. O. Key, Jr.: *Ballot Position and Voter's Choice: The Arrangement of Names on the Ballot and Its Effect on the*

- Voter*. Detroit, Wayne State University Press, 1957. 108 pages.
- Beck, Robert N.: *The Meaning of Americanism: An Essay on the Religious and Philosophic Basis of the American Mind*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1956. 180 pages. \$4.75.
- Bell, George A.: *State Budget Administration in Maryland*. College Park, University of Maryland, College of Business and Public Administration, Bureau of Governmental Research, 1957. 109 pages.
- Berrien, F. K., and Wendell H. Bash: *Human Relations: Comments and Cases*. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1957. 564 pages. \$5.00.
- Bowman, Edward H., and Robert B. Fetter: *Analysis for Production Management*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 503 pages. \$6.50.
- Bruce, Harold R.: *A College Text in American National Government*. Rev. ed., New York, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1957. 850 pages.
- Bulletin Signalétique* (Anciennement Bulletin Analytique). Vol. X, No. 4, Philosophie Sciences Humaines. Paris, Centre de Documentation du C.N.R.S., 1956. 209 pages.
- Carr, Robert K., Marver H. Bernstein, Donald H. Morrison, and Joseph E. McLean: *American Democracy in Theory and Practice: Essentials of National, State, and Local Government*. New York, Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1957. 737 pages. \$6.50.
- Cashat, Betty (comp. by): *Selected Trade and Professional Associations of Texas*. Austin, University of Texas, Bureau of Business Research, 1957. 20 pages. \$10.
- Cumberland, Kenneth B.: *Southwest Pacific*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956. 365 pages. \$6.50.
- Daland, Robert T.: *Dixie City: A Portrait of Political Leadership*. University, Alabama, University of Alabama, Bureau of Public Administration, 1956. 38 pages.
- Dixon, Wilfrid J., and Frank J. Massey, Jr.: *Introduction to Statistical Analysis*. 2d ed., New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957. 488 pages. \$6.00.
- Falk, Minna R.: *History of Germany: From the Reformation to the Present Day*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1957. 438 pages. \$6.00.
- Forms of City Government*. 4th ed., Public Affairs Series No. 29. Austin, University of Texas, Institute of Public Affairs, 1956. 36 pages.
- Frazier, E. Franklin: *The Negro in the United States*. Rev. ed., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1957. 769 pages. \$6.40.
- Fr.-Chirovsky, Nicholas L.: *The Economic Factors in the Growth of Russia: An Economic-Historical Analysis*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1957. 178 pages. \$3.75.
- Glick, Paul C.: *American Families* (a volume in the Census Monograph Series). New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. 240 pages. \$6.00.
- Glover, John Desmond, and Ralph M. Hower: *The Administrator: Cases on*

- Human Relations in Business*. 3d ed., Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 803 pages. \$6.50.
- Harris, Marvin: *Town and Country in Brazil*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1956. 302 pages. \$4.50.
- Hewitt, Charles Mason: *Automobile Franchise Agreements*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1956. 287 pages. \$6.00.
- Hofstadter, Richard, William Miller, and Daniel Aaron: *The United States: The History of a Republic*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957. 812 pages.
- Husband, William H., and James C. Dockeray: *Modern Corporation Finance*. 4th ed., Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 771 pages. \$6.50.
- Jones, Manley Howe: *Executive Decision Making*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 485 pages. \$6.00.
- Kahl, Joseph A., with an introduction by Kingsley Davis: *The American Class Structure*. New York, Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1957. 310 pages. \$4.50.
- Kennedy, Ralph Dale, and Stewart Yarwood McMullen: *Financial Statements: Form, Analysis, and Interpretation*. 3d ed., Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 633 pages. \$6.95.
- Kennedy, Ralph Dale, and Stewart Y. McMullen: *Questions and Problems for Financial Statements: Form, Analysis, and Interpretation*. 3d ed., Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 290 pages.
- Kirkpatrick, Clifford: *The Family: As Process and Institution*. New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955. 651 pages. \$6.00.
- Komarovsky, Mirra (ed.): *Common Frontiers of the Social Sciences*. Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press and The Falcon's Wing Press, 1957. 439 pages. \$6.00.
- Kornhauser, Arthur (ed.): *Problems of Power in American Democracy*. Detroit, Wayne State University Press, 1957. 239 pages. \$5.00.
- Lambarde, William, ed. Charles H. McIlwain and Paul L. Ward: *Archeion: Or, A Discourse upon the High Courts of Justice in England*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, 1957. 176 pages. \$5.00.
- Landau, M. E.: *Women of Forty*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1956. 49 pages. \$2.50.
- Latourette, Kenneth Scott: *A Short History of the Far East*. 3d ed., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1957. 754 pages. \$6.00.
- Lincoln, John C.: *Ground Rent, Not Taxes: The Natural Source of Revenue for the Government*. New York, Exposition Press, 1957. 72 pages. \$2.50.
- Macek, Josef: *An Essay on the Impact of Marxism*. Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1955. 147 pages. \$5.00.
- Maston, T. B.: *Christianity and World Issues*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1957. 374 pages. \$5.00.



- Notes on the Industrialization of Texas.* Series 3. Reprinted from *Texas Business Review*. Austin, University of Texas, Bureau of Business Research, 1957. \$.50.
- Owens, Richard N.: *Management of Industrial Enterprises*. 3d ed., Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 673 pages. \$6.50.
- Peach, W. Nelson, and George W. Rucker: *Workbook in Economics*. Homewood, Ill., Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957. 218 pages. \$2.00.
- Phelps, Clyde William: *The Role of Factoring in Modern Business Finance*. Studies in Commercial Financing, No. 1. Baltimore, Commercial Credit Company, Educational Division, 1956. 70 pages.
- Reddick, Dewitt C., and J. Roy Moses: *Company & Association Publications of Texas—1956*. Business Guide No. 8. Austin, Texas, University of Texas, Bureau of Business Research, 1956. 41 pages. \$.50.
- The Rockefeller Foundation Annual Report, 1955*. New York, The Rockefeller Foundation, 1956. 350 pages.
- The Royal Naval Medical School: *Notes on Atomic Energy for Medical Officers*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1956. 169 pages. \$4.75.
- Runes, Dagobert D. (ed. with an introduction by): *Baruch Spinoza: The Road to Inner Freedom: The Ethics*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1957. 215 pages. \$3.00.
- Sarasohn, Stephen B., and Vera H. Sarasohn, with a foreword by David B. Truman: *Political Party Patterns in Michigan*. Detroit, Wayne State University Press, 1957. 76 pages.
- Saucier, Corinne L.: *Traditions de la Paroisse des Avoyelles en Louisiane*. Philadelphia, American Folklore Society, 1956. 162 pages.
- Science 7-8-9: Suggestions for Developing Courses of Study in General Science for the Early Secondary School Grades*. Albany, New York State Education Department, Bureau of Secondary Curriculum Development, 1956. 88 pages.
- Seelye, Alfred L., and Jarrett Hudnall, Jr.: *Compensation of Retail Department Store and Specialty Store Salespeople in Major Texas Cities*. Business Guide No. 9. Austin, University of Texas, Bureau of Business Research, 1957. 56 pages. \$1.00.
- Shapiro, Harry L. (ed.): *Man, Culture, and Society*. New York, Oxford University Press, 1956. 380 pages. \$5.50.
- S.O.D.R.E.: *Musica, Radio, Ballet, Cine, Etnologia Y Folklore*. No. 4. Montevideo, Uruguay, 1956. 105 pages.
- State General Fund Taxes in Kentucky*. Research Publication No. 45. Frankfort, Kentucky, 1956. 237 pages.
- Taylor, George W., and Frank C. Pierson (eds.): *New Concepts in Wage Determination*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957. 336 pages. \$6.50.
- Waldo, Dwight: *Perspectives on Administration*. University, Alabama, University of Alabama Press, 1956. 143 pages. \$2.50.



Weiler, E. T., and W. H. Martin: *The American Economic System: An Analytical Approach to Public Policy*. Rev. ed., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1957. 623 pages. \$6.00.

Wilson, Ruth Danenhower: *Here Is Haiti*. New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1957. 204 pages. \$3.50.

Winnick, Louis, and Ned Shilling: *American Housing and Its Use* (a volume in the Census Monograph Series). New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. 143 pages. \$5.50.

*Woodrow Wilson Centennial Issue*. Florida State University Studies No. 23. Tallahassee, Florida State University, 1956. 102 pages. \$1.00.

# The Association: Proceedings of the 1957 Convention

*Minutes of the Executive Council, Southwestern Social Science Association, Thursday, April 18, 1957*

The meeting was called to order by President Curry at 8:30 P.M. Those present were: O. J. Curry, J. William Davis, Walter T. Watson, Harry E. Moore, Leon C. Megginson, P. F. Boyer, H. J. Meenen, Sam Leifeste, Joe E. Brown, James A. Tinsley, and Hiram J. Friedsam.

It was moved and seconded that the minutes of the previous meeting be adopted as published in the June, 1956, issue of the *QUARTERLY*. Passed unanimously.

Marion Smith asked the council for a clarification of the policy of selling tickets to the luncheons. The committee reiterated its statement of the preceding year that tickets to the banquet would be sold by those at the registration desk, but tickets to the other organized breakfasts or luncheons would be sold by the chairmen of the sessions concerned. The committee agreed to have a table provided at the registration desk for the concerned persons to sell tickets.

Harry Moore gave a report of the activities of the Editor of the *QUARTERLY* for the preceding year. President Curry pointed out that the University of Texas had continued its subsidy under a grant from the Hogg Foundation and that Moore had been elected editor to replace Fred Meyers, who is on a year's leave of absence.

Moore moved that the *QUARTERLY* not exchange subscriptions with other journals or quarterlies as we do not have an organized place to keep the copies we would receive. Seconded by J. William Davis. Passed unanimously.

Moore moved that the Executive Council recommend to the section chairmen that the policy of the Association be that section editors serve on a continuing basis of three or more years. Seconded by Sam Leifeste. Passed unanimously.

Moore led a discussion of a request by the Library of Congress that Congressmen be granted blanket permission to quote material in the *QUARTERLY* without written permission of the Editor or others. It was moved by P. F. Boyer and seconded by Davis that the policy of the Association be to refuse permission for anyone to have blanket permission to quote material in the *QUARTERLY* without written permission. Passed unanimously.

Leon Megginson presented the Secretary-Treasurer's report (which becomes a part of the minutes of the General Business Meeting) and moved its adoption. Seconded by Walter Watson. Passed unanimously.

President Curry led a discussion on the convention hotel for the April 3-5, 1958, meeting. It is to be held in Dallas

in either the Adolphus, Statler, or Baker hotels. It was moved by Boyer that action be delayed until Saturday to give time to poll the members on their preference. Seconded by James Tinsley. Passed unanimously.

It was reported that the following cities would like to have the Association in 1959: Mineral Wells, Austin, San Antonio, Galveston, and Houston.

Walter Watson reported on the membership drive and indicated that a great deal of effort had been expended in securing new members and renewing memberships of previous members. The Secretary-Treasurer pointed out that as

best it could be determined, up until the time of the convention, 39 new members and 13 renewals had been obtained through the actions of this committee.

Joe Brown suggested the desirability of a publicity committee. Extensive discussion ensued, but no action was taken.

The President emphasized that the current session chairmen have the responsibility for election of new chairmen and editors and for reporting to the Secretary-Treasurer the results of the elections.

The meeting was adjourned.

Leon C. Megginson  
Secretary-Treasurer

*Minutes of the General Business Meeting, Southwestern Social Science Association, Saturday, April 20, 1957*

The meeting was called to order by President Curry at 8:00 A.M.

It was moved, seconded, and passed unanimously that the minutes of the previous meeting, as reported in the June, 1956, *QUARTERLY*, be adopted.

Walter T. Watson reported for the Membership Committee and emphasized the large amount of work that the members had done during the year and emphasized that additional work needed to be done toward increasing the number of members.

Leon Megginson gave the Secretary-Treasurer's report and it becomes part of these minutes. It was moved by J. William Davis and seconded by Roy McPherson that the financial report be adopted. Passed unanimously.

James Owen gave the Auditor's report. It was moved by Harry Moore and seconded by William Ross that the

report be accepted. Passed unanimously. It now becomes a part of these minutes.

Carl Rosenquist gave a report for the Endowment Committee. He also emphasized the importance of continued activity on the part of the committee.

G. W. McGinty reported for the Constitutional Amendments Committee. There were no amendments to the constitution during the current year.

Harry Moore reported on his activities as Editor of the *QUARTERLY*. He emphasized that the *QUARTERLY*, which is continuing under the subsidy by the University of Texas as provided by the Hogg Foundation, was, and would continue to be, interdisciplinary and interregional. He suggested that the Book Review Editor would like to have a list of persons who would be willing to review books for the *QUAR-*

TERLY. President Curry officially commended Harry Moore for his services during the year. President Curry announced that the General Program Chairman, Tom Rose, who was in the hospital, should be commended for his work during the year.

George Hunsberger reported for Dean Lang for the Resolutions Committee. It was moved by George Walker and seconded by Marion Smith that the report be adopted. Passed unanimously. It now becomes a part of these minutes.

H. J. Friedsam presented the following resolution adopted by the Southwestern Sociological Society and moved its adoption:

*Resolved*, That the Southwestern Social Science Association express its concern over the proposal formulated in the Legislature of the State of Texas and in other states to forbid all employees of the state from membership in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Without asserting as wise or unwise any of the practices or policies of that organization, the Southwestern Social Science Association emphatically declares the right of teachers who are state employees to affiliate with any organization so long as it does not advocate disobedience to the law as interpreted by the courts.

*Be it further resolved*, That the President of the Association send a copy of this resolution or a letter embodying the sense of the resolution to the Attorney-General and Governor of Texas and to such other persons as he may deem appropriate.

Carl M. Rosenquist seconded the motion. After considerable discussion, William Davis moved that the motion be tabled, seconded by Richardson. The vote was 16 "Yes" to table and 12 "No."

George Hunsberger gave the report of the Nominating Committee. The following officers were nominated: President, J. William Davis, Texas

Technological College; First Vice-President, Walter T. Watson, Southern Methodist University; Second Vice-President, Alfred P. Sears, University of Oklahoma. It was moved by Carl Rosenquist and seconded by Childs that the Secretary cast a unanimous ballot for this slate of officers. Passed unanimously.

The following were elected chairmen and editors of their sections:

*Accounting*—Chairman, James M. Owen, Louisiana State University  
Editor, Sam Woolsey, University of Houston

*Agricultural Economics*—Chairman, James W. Bennett, Texas Technological College  
Editor, John Southern, U.S. Department of Agriculture

*Business Administration*—Chairman, James W. Reddoch, Louisiana State University  
Editor, Sam Leifeste, Texas Christian University

*Business Research*—Chairman, Ralph Edgel, University of New Mexico  
Editor, Merwyn Bridenstine, University of Arkansas

*Economics*—Chairman, James B. Giles, Rice Institute  
Editor, Virginia Sloan, New Mexico Highlands University

*Geography*—Chairman, James I. Culbert, New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts  
Editor, Ralph Olson, University of Oklahoma

*Government*—Chairman, Wilfred Webb, University of Texas  
Editor, Dick Smith, Tarleton State College

*History*—Chairman, John Payne,  
Sam Houston State College  
Editor, Donald Berthrong, Uni-  
versity of Oklahoma

*Sociology*—Chairman, Franz Adler,  
University of Arkansas  
Editor, Donald Stewart, Univer-  
sity of Oklahoma

The meeting was turned over to the incoming President, J. William Davis. After several comments and announcements by the incoming President, the meeting was adjourned.

Leon C. Megginson  
*Secretary-Treasurer*

*Minutes of the Executive Council, Southwestern Social Science Association,  
Saturday, April 20, 1957*

The meeting was called to order by President Davis at 9:00 A.M. Those present were: J. William Davis, Walter T. Watson, Leon C. Megginson, Harry E. Moore, O. J. Curry, S. M. Kennedy, James M. Owen, James W. Bennett, James B. Giles, Wilfred Webb, John W. Payne, Jr., Franz Adler, and John M. Brooks.

John Brooks gave a report on the meeting places for 1958. As the consensus of the various sections was that the meeting be held in the Hotel Adolphus, O. J. Curry moved that Hotel Adolphus be the convention hotel for 1958, and that in following years we reappraise our policy of meeting places. Seconded by Wilfred Webb. Passed unanimously.

It was moved by Curry that the convention hotel for 1959 be in Galveston, Houston, New Orleans, Austin, or some other city in the peripheral area. Seconded and passed unanimously.

President Davis appointed a committee composed of Bill Kolb, Tulane; Leon Megginson, James Owen, and James Reddoch, Louisiana State University, to investigate the possibility of holding the convention in New Orleans if satisfactory arrangements can be

made. It was moved by Harry Moore and seconded by Wilfred Webb that this committee function in this capacity. Passed unanimously.

It was suggested that the committee get in touch with the American Business Writers Association and the Business Law group to get their reaction as to where the 1959 meeting should be held.

President Davis appointed S. M. Kennedy, Texas Technological College, as General Program Chairman for the next convention.

President Davis appointed the following committee to report on revising the policy of meeting in the Dallas-Fort Worth area for two years and one year on the periphery: Kennedy, Watson, Curry, Giles, Sears, and Owen.

James Bennett brought a resolution from the Agricultural Economics Section that the convention be held some time other than during the holiday period. It was moved by Bennett and seconded by Giles that this resolution be considered. Passed unanimously. President Davis then referred this question to the committee studying the policy of meeting places for the convention.

Editor Harry Moore led a discussion of a possible tie-in with the Air Force whereby it will pay the cost of publishing articles submitted by its members for publication in the *QUARTERLY*. It was moved by Wilfred Webb and seconded by James Bennett that the Editor negotiate with the Air Force and report to the members of the Executive Council for action.

President Davis led a discussion of the Presidential address at the convention and appointed a committee composed of the section chairmen, with the General Program Chairman serving as

chairman of the committee, to advise him on the Presidential address.

It was moved by S. M. Kennedy and seconded by James Bennett that Leon Megginson be elected Secretary-Treasurer for the coming year. Passed unanimously.

It was moved by Kennedy and seconded by Bennett that Harry Moore be elected the Editor of the *QUARTERLY* for the coming year. Passed unanimously.

The meeting was adjourned.

Leon C. Megginson  
Secretary-Treasurer

Secretary-Treasurer's Report, Southwestern Social Science Association, Comparative Statement of Cash Receipts and Disbursements for the Years Ending February 28, 1957; February 29, 1956; and March 15, 1955

<i>Cash receipts from:</i>	1957	1956	1955
Individual memberships . . . . .	\$1,956.00	\$2,111.00	\$1,629.00
Library membership . . . . .	872.68	785.00	731.00
Institutional membership . . . . .	4.00	135.00	95.00
Sale of back issues of <i>QUARTERLY</i> . . . .	196.75	133.62	71.50
Display space at convention . . . . .	330.00	630.00	150.00
Advertising in <i>QUARTERLY</i> . . . . .	196.67	365.17	226.67
Advertising in Annual Program . . . .	445.00	160.00	100.00
Receipts from banquet and luncheon . .	411.60	509.30	376.20
Sale of reprints . . . . .	126.16	127.00	34.50
Miscellaneous . . . . .	35.00	7.00	24.96
Total cash receipts . . . . .	<u>\$4,573.86</u>	<u>\$4,963.09</u>	<u>\$3,438.83</u>

*Cash disbursements for:*

*QUARTERLY* expenses:

Printing

March issue . . . . .	\$ 858.05	\$ 819.40	\$ . . . .
June issue . . . . .	755.25	928.55	807.85
September issue . . . . .	335.40	233.78	942.86
December issue . . . . .	776.90	757.80	82.70

*Cash disbursements—QUARTERLY expenses—continued*

Editor's petty cash and other expenses	132.26	157.97	102.11
Wrappers . . . . .	29.36	44.20	14.85
Net QUARTERLY expenses . . .	<u>\$2,887.22</u>	<u>\$2,941.70</u>	<u>\$1,950.37</u>
Plus University of Texas subsidy*	3,800.00		
Total QUARTERLY cost . . . .	<u>\$6,687.22</u>		

*Convention expenses:*

Printing programs . . . . .	\$ 276.41	\$ 182.38	\$ 116.62
Expense of General Program . . . .	5.00	66.00	66.25
Banquet and luncheon . . . . .	444.95	509.45	366.30
Registration expenses . . . . .	24.96	12.34	50.45
Total . . . . .	<u>\$ 751.32</u>	<u>\$ 770.17</u>	<u>\$ 599.62</u>

*Expenses of Secretary-Treasurer:*

Postage . . . . .	\$ 10.00	\$ 60.00	\$ 55.00
Stationery and office supplies . . . .	37.44	3.05	7.35
Clerical expenses . . . . .	288.90	....	203.16
Miscellaneous . . . . .	41.00	4.00	15.72
Total . . . . .	<u>\$ 377.34</u>	<u>\$ 67.05</u>	<u>\$ 281.23</u>

*Other expenses:*

Print application forms . . . . .	\$ 8.16	\$ 22.87	
Print membership roster . . . . .	5.00	30.86	
Miscellaneous . . . . .	12.80	8.80	
Total . . . . .	<u>\$ 25.96</u>	<u>\$ 62.53</u>	

Total cash disbursed . . . . .	<u>\$4,041.84</u>	<u>\$3,841.45</u>	<u>\$2,929.43</u>
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Excess of disbursements or receipts . .	532.02	1,121.64	509.40
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Add cash balance at beginning of year .	2,751.47	1,629.83	1,120.43
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Cash balance at end of year† . . . .	<u>\$3,283.49</u>	<u>\$2,751.47</u>	<u>\$1,629.83</u>
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\* Applied toward printing cost of the September, 1956, issue \$ 500.00  
 Applied toward one-half the cost of a technical editor (University of Texas Press) 2,400.00  
 Applied toward a replacement teaching assistant for the QUARTERLY editor 700.00  
 Supplies and postage 200.00

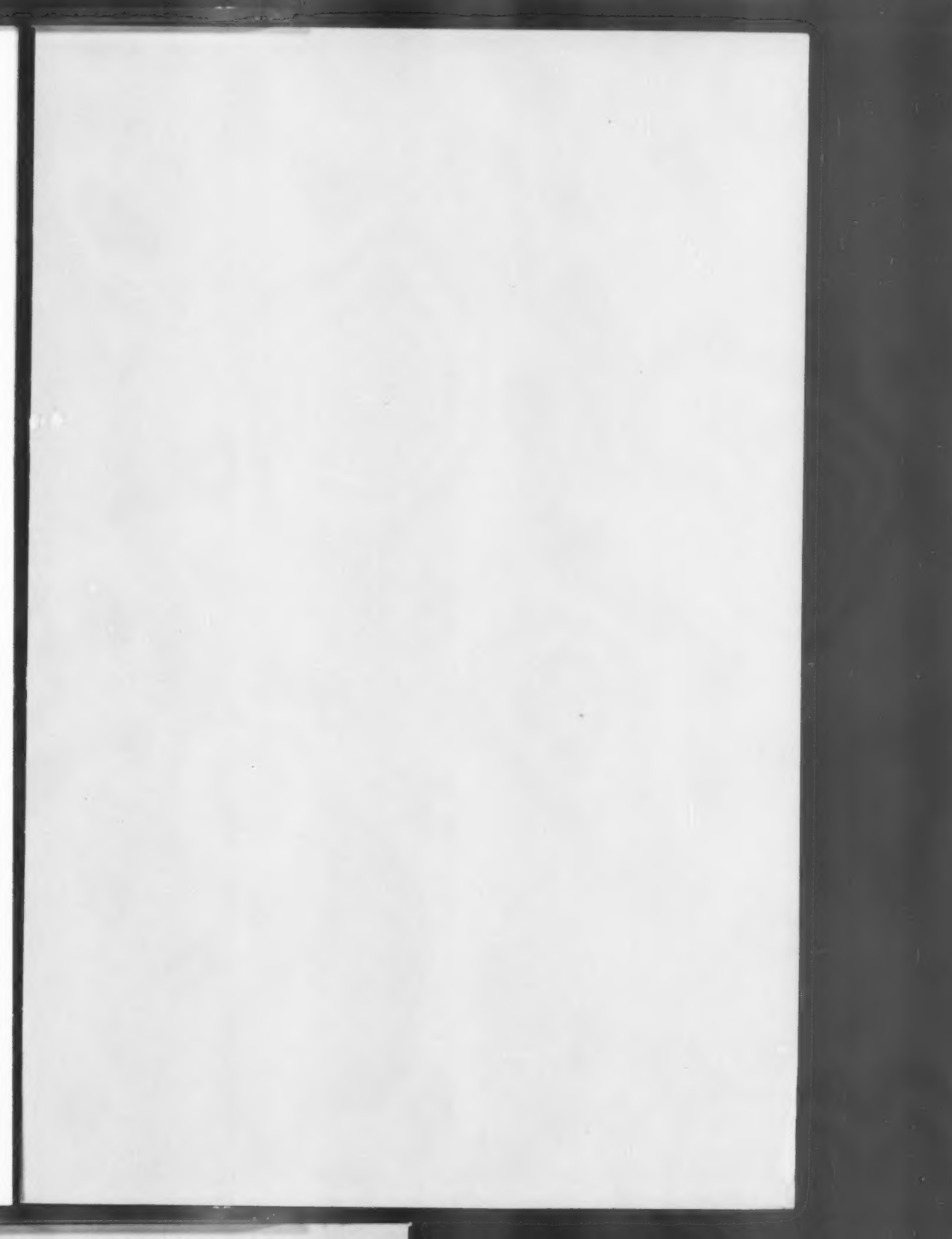
Total \$3,800.00

† Louisiana National Bank \$3,258.49  
 Editor's petty cash fund 25.00

Total \$3,283.49







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